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ABSTRACT

WITH THE LOSS OF THE ORIGINAL RELIGIOUS FOUNDATION OF EDUCATION AND ITS INCREASING SECULARIZATION, THERE HAS BEEN A SHIFT IN DEFINITION OF THE TEACHER'S ROLE. IN ATTEMPTING TO PREPARE PERSONS FOR ASSUMING THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THIS ROLE, EDUCATION HAS RELIED ON TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS AS EXTERNAL ELEMENTS OF CONTROL INSTEAD OF THE EARLIER TENDENCY TO ASSUME THE RECRUIT WAS CONTROLLED BY INTERNAL ELEMENTS OF MOTIVATION AND COMMITMENT. IT WAS HYPOTHESIZED THAT PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS DO PRODUCE A SIGNIFICANT CHANGE IN THE TEACHER'S ATTITUDE CONCERNING KNOWLEDGE OF METHODS TO BE USED IN HIS ROLE PERFORMANCE, BUT THAT THEY DO NOT PRODUCE A SIGNIFICANT CHANGE IN HIS ATTITUDE CONCERNING TEACHING SKILLS, HIS IMAGE OF PROFESSIONALIZATION, OR HIS SPIRIT OF PROFESSIONALIZATION. A QUESTIONNAIRE TO MEASURE ATTITUDE ON THESE FOUR ASPECTS OF TEACHER ROLE WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE 1955-1956 EDUCATION MAJORS (189) OF GENEVA AND WESTMINSTER COLLEGES (PENNSYLVANIA) BEFORE AND AFTER PROFESSIONAL TRAINING (STUDENT TEACHING SEMESTER). THE 16 FACTOR PERSONALITY TEST WAS ALSO ADMINISTERED AND PERSONAL BACKGROUND DATA COLLECTED. FACTOR ANALYSIS OF DATA SHOWED THAT WHILE ATTITUDE TOWARD THE PROFESSIONAL IMAGE, METHODS, AND SKILL BECAME MORE POSITIVE, ATTITUDE TOWARD THE PROFESSIONAL SPIRIT WAS NEGATIVELY INFLUENCED. (DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS EXPLORES THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE UNPREDICTED INFLUENCES OF STUDENT TEACHING, PERSONALITY AND CULTURAL FACTORS, STUDENT DISENCHANTMENT AND REALITY SHOCK, AND THE BIFURCATED VALUE SYSTEM OF A CHANGING CULTURE.) (JS)

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THE STUDENT TEACHER AND PROFESSIONAL VALUES

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FOREWORD

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INTRODUCTION

> Let not many of you become teachers, my brethren, for you know that we who teach shall be judged with greater strictness.
> (James 3:1 RSV)

As the role of the teacher has been changing and becoming more complex, serious questions have been raised about the adequacy of teacher training programs. In an earlier day, the close linkage of the ministry with education resulted in a duality of function and role performance in education. The profession did not have to rely upon its own devices, however, to indoctrinate the recruit into the field. Many fledgling teachers felt "called" into education as though it were a religious endeavor. In other ways, also, the teacher relied on religious precepts for determining his role behavior.

With the secularization of society, however, education has had to develop its own system of professionalizing mechanisms. The problem has been complicated by the fact that much of the religious significance of the teacher's contribution to society remains in the form of professional values. Yet, without the support of the religious institution, the teacher's role has become somewhat ambiguous and the public image of this role is similarly confused. In attempting to prepare persons for assuming the responsibilities of this role, education has relied on teacher training programs as external elements of control instead of the earlier tendency to assume that the recruit was controlled by internal elements of motivation and commitment. The problem is whether the teacher training program, as a professionalizing device, has been adequate for preparing the teacher for his new role.

Students of teacher training programs are not completely clear as to how the problem is to be solved. While some suggest the importance of increased care being employed in selecting students for training, others believe the weaknesses are located in the programs themselves. The former position implies that the teacher's role is largely controlled by internal personality characteristics while the latter suggests the importance of professionalizing devices external to the individual. What has been generally lacking are attempts to isolate the components of the teacher's role. This study suggests that the teacher's role is dichotomized into specific teaching and general professional components. These are further divided into the categories of professional image and spirit and teaching skills and methods. It is further hypothesized that while teacher training programs may produce a significant change in the area of methods, they do not significantly alter the teacher's image, spirit, or skills.

This study further argues that the personality of the teacher is a critical factor in his role performance. Some linkage of personality characteristics with skills and spirit, in particular, is assumed to exist. Thus, preparation for the teacher's role cannot be controlled exclusively by this external factor of professionalizing devices. Rather, a significant portion of it is presumed to remain latent in the personality of the individual. In addition, the professional image of the teacher is probably too complex to be adequately conveyed to the student teacher.

By administering questionnaires to teacher trainees before and after the student teaching program, it can be determined whether teacher training causes any significant changes in their attitudes toward the role. Further, there is the opportunity to study possible significant correlation of personality characteristics with aspects of the professional image.

Summarizing, it may be noted that the adequacy of teacher training programs as professionalizing devices in education is brought into question here. It is quite likely, however, that the problem cannot be limited to student teaching itself. The clear response which education makes to the needs of society suggests that the problem may best be understood in terms of the changing and complex nature of the teacher's role. In any case, if such programs are inadequate, then it will be necessary to provide for their adjustment to the professional needs of education or recognize that they may never be a substitute for the calling. It is hoped that some clarification of this problem will be forthcoming in this study.

I. SECULARIZATION OF EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION

A. Religious Foundation of Education

At its inception, education is profoundly religious in its orientation. Such a relationship is not superficial. Rather it is inherent in the intellectual problems and role obligations which are common to both religion and education. With the resultant tension, a dialogue is entered into between these two inquiring forces which attempt to understand and communicate some of the meaning of the world.[1]

In its earliest stages, education is diffuse in that knowledge may be given by any unspecialized member of society to all of the others. The dissemination of such knowledge, however, carries with it an element of social power which is readily devolved upon specially designated social functionaries. Quite early, the main sphere of this knowledge is centered in the sciences and their concern with the nature of the world. In this way, the priest becomes the means by which not only the dissemination of knowledge, but its control as well, becomes a concern of religion. Indeed, these elements of knowledge and learning have little value in themselves. It is only by virtue of the relations which they have with religious belief systems that they become an inseparable element in these systems.[2]

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[1] Max Weber, From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology, trans. and ed. H. H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946), pp. 350-357. A more complete expostion of the argument for these statements is provided here.

It is of particular significance for our purposes to note that differing religious functionaries may become educators.[3] Initially, sorcerers, concerned with military objectives, became keepers of myths and sagas and trained young warriors to develop a proper heroic attitude. As tradition became more inclusive and religion functioned for more diverse purposes, it was the priest upon whom the responsibility for educating youth ultimately rested. There is a tendency for religion to become more literary with an increased reliance on books and written doctrinal statements, however, and at this point, the more rational lay thinker comes into conflict with the priest over control of education. From these laymen, however, prophets arose in opposition to the priests and attempted to provide a new interpretation of the meaning of the world. In this manner, "prophetic as well as priestly religions have repeatedly stood in intimate relation with rational intellectualism" and have provided for the basis of the development of education.[4]

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[2] Emile Durkheim, Education and Sociology, trans. Sherwood D. Fox (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956), pp. 95-97.

[3] Weber, *op. cit.*, pp. 351-352.

[4] *Ibid.* While Weber and Durkheim are in implicit agreement on the importance of the priest as an educator, their particular interests cause them to go in different directions on this matter of the secularization of education. Concerned with the moral implications of education, Durkheim leaves open the question of secularization, while Weber is more quick to close it and center his attention on the matter of roles. Since Weber's orientation to educational roles is more pertinent for this study, he becomes a more ready support for the developing argument.

The linkage of religion with education in the development of American society is well known and readily documented. The earliest laws in America claimed that education should remove the ignorance of non-believers so as to provide for "the true knowledge and worship of God."[5] Particularly in Virginia and Massachusetts, education was promoted by the state and its dominant religious interests so that the individual could learn to read scripture. In this sense, religious functionaries maintained the power to disseminate and control knowledge, as described earlier.

Indeed, one could justifiably maintain that "early education in this country was totally dominated by Protestant religious values."[6] Particularly in New England, this domination was centered in a public school system of education. While the 1606 charter of Virginia made general provisions for the education of the unlearned heathen, it was in the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1624 that the clergy ordered each town of fifty householders to provide someone to teach the children to read and write.[7] In this spirit, religion continued to wield the dominant influence over American education until opposing forces usurped some of this function from religious groups which were becoming increasingly divisive. Corwin suggests that it was the business interests of society which replaced the religious in their influence over education.[8] Accepting the general Weberian thesis concerning the impact of Protestantism on the development of capitalism, it is his contention that education became less moralistic and increasingly materialistic in order to serve the needs of the nation and the business class.

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[5] H. Otto Dahlke, Values in Culture and Classroom (New York: Harper & Bros., 1958), p. 15.

[6] Ronald Corwin, A Sociology of Education (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965), p. 71.

[7] Dahlke, op. cit., pp. 16-17.

The importance of this claim is that it does help to point up the fact, already alluded to, that at some point in the development of a society, education becomes secularized. In addition, there is implicit in this argument the belief that educators vary in their commitment to education and their motivation for teaching. This last point is of critical importance to this study and should be considered in more detail.

B. The "Calling" of the Teacher

Referring to his claim that "moral authority is the dominant quality of the educator," Durkheim argues that it is the function of the teacher to interpret the moral beliefs of society.[9] Indeed, Durkheim likens the teacher to the priest who has authority because of the "high idea that he has of his calling."[10] From this perspective, one gains the sense of an altruism and dedication to moral principles which are deemed necessary in the teacher. Significantly, Durkheim does not identify the teaching role with the religious; they are separate though similarly motivated.[11] It appears to be this "moral authority" which characterizes the educator and which Durkheim apparently refers to as a "calling" or point of identity between these two roles.

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[8] Corwin, op. cit., pp. 72-78.

[9] Durkheim, op. cit., pp. 88.

[10] Ibid., p. 89.

While Durkheim considers the strengthening of society's moral life to be the dominant function of education, Weber isolates two separate ends: to awaken charisma and to impart specialized expert training.[12] The first type attempts to arouse a personal gift of grace while the second attempts to train a child for usefulness in administrative purposes. Between these two ideal types are found all of those forms of education which may provide for the student's preparation for life of either a religious or mundane character. In addition, these extreme forms represent those two types of social structure which provide such a dominant part of Weber's work; the irrational or charismatic and the rational or bureaucratic.[13]

Weber is quite clear that the German word "Beruf" or, in English, "calling," refers to "a religious conception, that of a task set by God."[14] The individual fulfilled his calling when he accomplished the obligations of his role as defined by society. In this sense, calling is not limited to the religious realm. Indeed, Parsons refers to it as "the devotion to a task for its own sake without ulterior motives."[15] Nevertheless, the stress placed upon calling as a religious phenomenon is clear, particularly for the ethical religion of faith.[16] On the level of the individual, it is the prophet who most clearly manifests the charismatic nature of his calling. The anti-rational attitude he assumes clearly sets him in opposition to the priests who represent the bureaucratic structure.

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[11] The similarity of Durkheim's views with Weber's on this subject will again become readily apparent. In characteristic fashion, however, the particular views of society held by these two thinkers prevents them from coming to a complete merger of thought.

[12] Weber, op. cit., p. 426.

[13] As in all of Weber's analyses, these two types do not stand in clear opposition to one another. Thus, "the warrior hero or the magician also needs special training and the expert official is generally not trained exclusively for knowledge." Ibid.

[14] Max Weber, The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, trans. Talcott Parsons (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930), p. 79.

Such an attitude of a religious faith of salvation "brings about, directly or indirectly, that 'sacrifice of the intellect' in the interests of a trans-intellectual, distinctive quality of absolute surrender and utter trust."[17] The salvation religion, then, attempts to transcend the realm of the intellect, thereby training for the irrational or charismatic life as previously noted. Yet, as Weber argues, "this type of religion constantly seeks to adapt intellectualism to its own purposes."[18] Clearly, there is suggested a merger of a salvation religion with education, partially because of the need to resolve the tension between these two forces, and partially because of the need to train youth for a trans-intellectual, charismatic life. At the very root of Weber's work, however, is the contention that these charismatic forms become routinized, resulting in the development of rational forms. In this way, a form of education having the original goal of training for the charismatic life may lead into education for the bureaucratic.

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[15] Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, trans. A. M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons (New York: Oxford University Press, 1947), p. 33.

[16] This reference to calling as a religious element is more often implied than stated. A particularly lucid passage clarifying this point is found in Max Weber, The Sociology of Religion, trans. Ephraim Fischoff (London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1965), pp. 192-200.

[17] Ibid., p. 196.

[18] Ibid., p. 197.

At this point in the development of the argument, we note two separate strands of thought which require separate attention. First, there appears to be the idea of an occupation which has a distinctly religious dimension. Indeed, it might have its roots in a thoroughly religious role, such as that of the prophet. The calling to an occupation takes form in a religion of salvation by faith which, characteristically, leads to an ethical position in the world.[19] Second, there is the idea of the secularization of an occupation. This process results from the maintenance of an ethical valuation of an occupation while losing some of those elements of faith which gave it its inception. Through this rationalization, faith also becomes separated from intellectualism.[20]

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[19] Ibid., pp. 197-199.

[20] Ibid., pp. 194-195. It should be noted that this linkage of faith with ethics is a distinguishing point in the work of Weber as compared with Durkheim who doesn't clearly trace the secularization of an occupational role in this manner.

C. The Secularization of the Calling

It is the ethical implication of a calling which is of particular importance for us. Yet this term need not be limited to religious activity. Parsons interprets the German term "Beruf" to refer to both profession and calling.[21] He further states that "profession . . . refers to a particular attitude toward one's occupation, no matter what that occupation may be."[22] (Emphasis supplied.) The nature of this attitude is in the form of a strong ethical valuation, as stated earlier. It is this conception of the profession as representative of the attitude towards one's work referred to as the calling which is basic to this study.

Weber never fully develops this conception of the profession since he becomes more concerned with the economic dimension of occupations in his development of rationalization. Indeed, it is precisely the non-pecuniary nature of a profession which is one of its most distinctive characteristics. Considering profession and calling to be synonymous here, Weber further describes such types of work as enjoying high prestige and technical competence.[23] In his broader analyses of politics and science, Weber characterizes these professional fields largely in terms of devotion and responsibility to the task. While the ethical demands remain, the religious elements of the faith are no longer present.

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[21] Weber, Protestant Ethic . . ., p. 194, n. 11. Though the context of these remarks pertains to a capitalistic culture, Weber is quick to note that the conception of a calling existed prior to the existence of such economic conditions. From this argument, we may conclude that the attitude of professionalism is not dependent on a particular economic ethic.

[22] Ibid. Weber is not always clear on this point. Elsewhere he sets the professional role of the priest against the charismatic role of the prophet, suggesting that the prophet can never be clearly distinguished as a professional. Protestant Ethic . . ., p. 29. Yet in characteristic Weberian fashion, he qualifies this view and claims that this distinction cannot be clearly drawn.

The preceding argument is crucial for this study. Once again, however, we have raised the question of the secularization of an occupation and further concern for this question must center in the notion that secularization is largely the result of remuneration which is used to reward the professional. Distinguishing the prophet from the priest, Weber claims that the prophet received no remuneration and that it behooved him not to professionalize his statements.[24] In the larger sense, the implication is that the profession becomes secularized when it is no longer seen as an end in itself by the professional but rather as a means to some other rational end. In this case, such an end would be deemed to be monetary.

Consistent with this view, Corwin traces the secularization of education in a similar manner. Noting the similarities in the religious and business systems of values and motivation, he argues that economic interests filled the void left by waning religious forces in nineteenth century American society.[25] Education sponsored by business for training the young in vocations and appropriate ideologies. This fact is further seen in the support given to business by the NEA.

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[23] Ibid., p. 214.

[24] Weber, The Sociology . . . , pp. 46-48. Here again is the problem of the opposition of the roles of prophet and priest noted earlier. Since the role is a religious one, it is quite likely that Weber argues that it should not be secularized. This interpretation would agree with Weber's other contention, since a profession may be totally ethical though secular and stemming from an earlier religious form.

This process of secularization, however, is more widespread than this. Claiming that teachers become professional specialists only in advanced societies, Wilson attributes this change to the secularization of knowledge itself.[26] As a result, the role requirements of the educator are altered and he becomes more of a knowledge seeker than a knowledge disseminator. The teacher's role becomes routinized, thereby "increasing the difficulty of drawing forth any high personal commitment which appears indispensable to the teaching role."[27] Indeed, the teacher does not differ significantly from other professionals in this respect, since all in the professions ideally have a moral commitment to give of their personality.[28] The diffuseness of the role and the lack of expertise, however, do weaken the teacher's professionality relative to the doctor or the lawyer, for example.

Our problem then, is concerned with the teacher as a professional who, historically, felt a calling for his position, whether religious in nature or not. Committed in his responsibility to society, the teacher felt a moral obligation and maintained a willingness to teach "for the love of teaching." As remuneration becomes a prime objective of one's role performance and teaching becomes a means to attain this end, however, changes in the value system of education reflect the general secularization of society. In this fashion, the teacher's role changes while hinting at the latent altruism which, traditionally, had been a part of the role expectation.

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[25] Corwin, op. cit., pp. 72-74.

[26] Bryan Wilson, "The Teacher's Role," British Journal of Sociology, XIII (1962), pp. 15-32 as reprinted in Peter Rose, The Study of Society (New York: Random House, 1967), p. 679.

[27] Ibid., p. 684.

[28] Ibid., p. 685. This notion of the professional as one who "finds" and "gives" his personality in his work is also critical to the work of Weber and is an underlying presupposition of this study. See, for example, From Max Weber: . . . , ch. 5, in particular pp. 135-138.

Secularization, then, is a process of change in society which may result in increased diversification and disorganization. Such change occurs when the original value system representing altruistic and religious motives comes into conflict with the more contemporary forms of role expectations. A new value system is needed to define and control these expectations. This system is provided for by the process of professionalization which is an attempt to return control of the professional role to members of the professional group. Without such control, the status of the professional in the society is marginal. The further implication of professionalization is that it is an effort to return order and structure to a modern diversified society.[29]

A critical element in the work of Durkheim is the assumption that occupational groups have the potential to reorganize society and take the form of moral authority, thereby stabilizing the disorganized society.[30] Others have also noted the moral dimension of professionalization and suggest that community and individual interests are synthesized.[31] In a society where diversity produces occupational groups of differing prestige and value, the profession is deemed highly desirable and provides motivation for the individual. In this manner, professionalization becomes an integral element in the production of vertical social mobility.[32]

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[29] Herbert Blumer, "Preface," Professionalization, ed. Howard Vollmer and Donald Mills (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966), p. X.

From this brief analysis, it can be suggested that the increased tendency toward professionalization in our society is a function of its own disorganization. Professionalization constitutes an area of consensus and value formation which provides the necessary morality, motivation, and structure for society and its component parts. In this way, the integrating force of religion has been largely replaced by professionalization. Education, in particular, is an heir to this trend toward professionalization. The close ties which education has had with religion in the past have been noted. In addition, education has been secularized in a manner similar to that which has altered the religious structure. With the rise of a business and industrial society, the value systems were merged and found a common denominator in professionalization.

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[30] Note particularly Emile Durkheim, Division of Labor in Society, trans. George Simpson (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1933), pp. 1-31.

[31] Bernard Barber, "Some Problems in the Sociology of Professions," Daedalus, XCII (Fall, 1963), p. 670 and R. H. Tawney, The Acquisitive Society (New York: Harvest Books, 1920), ch. 7.

[32] Morris Cogan, "Toward a Definition of Profession," Harvard Educational Review, XXIII (Winter, 1953), p. 38.

Nevertheless, in this process of secularization, clear resolution of problems is not always possible. Significant strains often exist as the profession attempts to clarify its value system and integrate it with the larger structure of developing professions. Being tied as closely to religion as it was, these strains are pronounced for education. Distinguishing between professions and non-professions, Wilensky states that the former are characterized by society's provision of "strong, widespread consensus regarding the knowledge or doctrine to be applied."[33] The critical question appears to be whether education can truly enjoy this type of acceptance considering its traditionally religious base. If not, what must education do to suggest that such consensus exists?

Undoubtedly, education has been highly influenced by the development of professionalization in modern society. This has partially been the natural result of its development from the earlier religious foundation. In addition, however, the socializing function of education predisposes it to share an integral part of the professionalization process, since socialization is a vital element in the control which professions exert upon society. Socialization, then, may become a primary means used by a marginal profession, such as education, to suggest to society that it is a profession.

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[33] Harold Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone?", American Journal of Sociology, LXX (September, 1964), p. 138.

D. The Nature of Education as a Profession

It is in this matter of the strain toward professionalization and its impact upon education that we ask the more relevant questions for this study. Is education a profession? If this should, indeed, be the case, what does it mean to be professional? Can the conception of professionality be conveyed by education to its personnel?

Since 1541 when a learned vocation was first referred to as a profession, it has been generally conceded that teaching is a professional field.[34] In modern society, there has been an increased tendency to take this label for granted. For some, however, this assumption is oversimplified and they would question the professional status of education. Lieberman, for instance, states that education should realize that "tremendous strides toward professionalization" have not been taken.[35] Instead, educators should stop deluding themselves concerning the degree of professionalization of the field. Lieberman claims that there is little difference between the motives and character of teachers and persons in other vocations. Indeed, he claims that people go into teaching for the purpose of social advancement rather than social service, thus suggesting a strong social climbing function of teaching.[36]

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[34] Cogan, op. cit., p. 34.

[35] Myron Lieberman, Education As a Profession (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1956), pp. 481-482. See also p. 465.

Recognizing the tendency toward professionalization in most vocations and the inherent difficulties in such a trend, Wilensky attempts to establish clear lines of distinction between full and borderline professions.[37] He states that university teaching is a full profession while teaching, in general, is not. Based on his criteria of technical skill gained through long training and adherence to a system of norms, Wilensky would claim that university teachers have public support and a service ideal which is not clearly apparent for levels below that of higher education. For this reason, greater value would apparently be attributed to higher education. Only in the extent to which elementary and secondary education can give the impression of having comparable value can they claim professionality.

It is Wilson's contention that education becomes professional only in modern society where the secularization of knowledge requires greater specialization.[38] In at least two areas, however, this specialization does not provide for increased professional characteristics. First, the teacher's role has become so routinized that it increases "the difficulty of drawing forth any high personal commitment of the kind which appears indispensable to the teaching role."[39] Second, the teacher's role remains more diffuse than that of clearly definable professions such as medicine or the law so that there is no way in which it can acquire a clear area of expertise.

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[36] *Ibid*., p. 467. This pattern of vertical social mobility was referred to earlier and is well documented in the literature. One may make quick reference to several sources in passing; Howard S. Becker, "Schools and Systems of Social Status," *Phylon*, XVI (1955), pp. 159-170 and Ward S. Mason and Neal Gross, "Intra-Occupational Prestige Differentiation: The School Superintendency," *American Sociological Review*, XX (June, 1955), pp. 326-331.

[37] Wilensky, *op. cit*. See also T. M. Stinnett, *The Profession of Teaching* (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1962), pp. 38-40.

The marginal nature of education as a profession suggests that it is not always possible to differentiate one type of role requirement from another. Stinnett, for example, suggests that the changing nature of the teacher's role has caused confusion and lack of differentiation between the generalized roles of practitioner and professional.[40] The implication here is important, for it suggests that while the teacher is a practitioner, he often lacks the more symbolic dimensions of a professional role. Thus, in his behavior as a practitioner of certain skills, the teacher is, latently, professional but the question is whether he is able to be accepted as such by the public. "In other words, the question is not so much whether teaching is a profession, but whether teachers can be persuaded to act as professionals."[41]

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[38] Wilson, _op. cit._, p. 679.

[39] _Ibid._, p. 684.

[40] Stinnett, _op. cit._, p. 11

[41] _Ibid._

The question can now be enlarged to allow for the symbolic dimensions which education as a profession may take. Thus, on the concrete level of practice, education may be able to claim a degree of professionality in the extent to which it trains in areas of specialization. It is in the abstract area of professionality, however, that the position of education is more doubtful. For some, it is this "professional spirit" which is the critical factor in professionality.[42] There are those others who claim that profession is nothing more than a symbol.[43] This view holds that there are no true professions; that they are merely ideal states and exist only as abstract models. Indeed, as Becker states, the reality of the profession is often quite different from the ideal.[44]

It is possible, then to take both a real and a more symbolic view of education as a profession. To suggest that education has a real dimension as a profession implies that the teacher has a personal commitment to a socially valuable field of specialized knowledge which is unique and esoteric. The symbolic view would claim that such uniqueness is merely symbolic of a commitment and a knowledge which do not, in fact, exist. While the professional spirit may consist of both the real and symbolic components, they may also exist separately. The process of change, however, reduces the possibility of conceiving of these two forms as disparate.

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[42] See, for example, the classic work by Abraham Flexner, "Is Social Work A Profession?", Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections (Chicago: Hildmann Printing Co., 1915), pp. 576-590.

[43] This view is held by Howard S. Becker and is presented in Nelson B. Henry, ed., Education for the Professions, 61st Yearbook of NSSE (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962), pp. 32-40. Also Vollmer and Mills, op. cit., "Editors' Introduction," pp. vii-viii.

[44] Ibid., p. 40.

As education attempts to become more autonomous by developing specialized fields of concrete knowledge and endeavor, the tendency toward routinization reduces the likelihood of a personal commitment. On the other hand, the necessary commitment is difficult to convey to the public because the sense of altruism and dedication is so often lacking. While this commitment is critical to education, it is difficult to accomplish since the field has been so closely linked with the development of secularism, thus raising doubts concerning the public spiritedness of education. For this reason, it has been particularly important that education attempt to convey an impression of being professionally committed.

A critical problem faced by education and all emerging professions centers in the development of the proper professional attitude in the ranks of its representatives. The question of what it means to be a professional is of prime relevance here. From the foregoing analysis, it is clear that the teacher must attempt to be professional, not only in practice but also in the image he conveys to his peers and the public. The maintenance of such a precariously balanced role relationship is difficult, however, and there is development of considerable strain.

While the teacher performs many types of services, he is still, primarily, a socializer. Nevertheless, the increased complexity of society has made his role more specialized, requiring him to be one who is also concerned with gaining knowledge. In his seeking, he becomes dependent on the knowledge of others, thereby reducing his value as one who delivers an esoteric service comprehensible to him alone.[45] The inability to control the relevant knowledge suggests that the teacher loses much of his opportunity to "profess"; he can not always claim to know better than someone else. His claim to teach is weakened, thus requiring some system of licensing or certification in order to distinguish between those who are qualified teachers and those who are not.

The objective of such certification is to establish an element of internal regulation within the profession, since the level of professionalization decreases with the extent to which control is in the hands of elements external to the profession itself.[46] Nevertheless, such efforts may deprecate the professionalization of the teacher. As Weber notes, licenses "support their holders' claims for intermarriages with notable families."[47] The control of certifying teachers may then become the basis for providing vertical social mobility, thus raising doubts in the mind of the public as to the service orientation of education.

The professional is to be differentiated from the dilettante or the amateur. This is most clearly accomplished by his request for remuneration for his services.[48] Certainly the professional is entitled to a monetary reward, not merely to allow for a delineation of his position, but also because of the training needed to acquire his knowledge, which is often of great service to society. Further, professions find it necessary to provide adequate rewards to motivate students to commit themselves to extended periods of training. This need is most acute for those marginal professions, such as education, which lack traditional rewards and systems of motivation. Such groups must use increased salaries, in addition to other means, to justify such training.[49] Nevertheless, this requirement also militates against the teacher's efforts to convince society of his altruistic commitment. The professional must constantly deal with the decision of whether he should give priority to service or personal profit. Yet in taking the former course of action, the professional leans closer to the amateur status. From the historical perspective, in particular, the teacher must be concerned with providing service to the community but it is not always clear how this might best be done.

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[45] Everett Hughes, "Professions," Daedalus, op. cit., p. 655.

[46] Vollmer and Mills, op. cit., p. 110.

[47] Weber, From Max Weber: . . . , op. cit., p. 241.

Despite the difficulty that some marginal groups have in being accepted as professional by society, their services are increasingly in demand. In part, this tendency is the result of the broad swing to secularization and professionalization. More than that, however, is the fact that professionals are being sought by government and industry, suggesting that their value is real. Such popularity would imply that, in some respects, professionals have been able to create an impression of providing a positive contribution. With this success, however, has come a significant strain, for the professional has lost the sense of autonomy which is critical for the maintenance of his status.[50]

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[48] See, for instance, Alma Wittlin, "The Teacher," _Daedalus_, _op. cit._, pp. 745-763 and a reference to a statement by Dewey in the work by Cogan, _op. cit._, p. 39.

[49] Hughes, _op. cit._, pp. 661-662.

It is this matter of autonomy which is a critical point of differentiation between the professional and the business man.[51] Being dependent on the larger world of business and government, however, the teacher has had much of his autonomy usurped by the social forces he serves. Thus, a significant conflict between role commitment and career orientation is imposed upon him.[52] He finds a tension between those actions which he deems necessary to perform and those which are imposed upon him by society. In this position, the teacher finds his professional status further weakened by the inability to control his own standards. In addition, an orientation to a career implies that the performance of a teaching service for its own end is lost and the teacher's action becomes a means to a further end specified by an external organization. This possible orientation to a career removes the commitment of the teacher to values which are inherent in his definition of the role and increases the likelihood of bureaucratic control by the organization.[53]

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[50] On this general question, see Kenneth S. Lynn, "The Professions," Daedalus, op. cit., pp. 650-652, and Hughes, ibid., pp. 664-667.

[51] Vollmer and Mills, op. cit., pp. 50-55.

[52] Wilson, op. cit., pp. 691-692. See also Wilensky, op. cit., pp. 153-155.

There is little doubt that there is rather widespread acceptance of professionals by non-professionals. This is particularly true for those who are in positions of superiority over the professional. The true professional, however, is only willing to accept control by his peers who represent the final judgment of his professionality.[54] It is through these relationships that professional associations, critical to the profession itself, are formed. Yet this concern for peer relationships is inadequate. The professional must convince the larger public of his status if he is to gain clients and additional recruits for the profession.

E. The Development of a Professional Image in Teachers

It is this last requirement with which we are particularly concerned in this study. Education must develop a professional spirit or, at least, give the impression to the public that such a spirit exists if it is to maintain an adequate supply of teacher trainees. As is true with any profession, education must develop well established standards of training its personnel.[55] The professionalization of recruits becomes of critical importance for education because of those factors which tend to operate against the ready formation of a professional spirit; a history of secularization, marginality of the profession, and the existence of significant elements of strain in the definition of the role.

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[53] Wilensky, ibid., pp. 146-148. It is the author's claim that bureaucracy weakens the service ideal of a profession more than its autonomy.

[54] Barber, op. cit., p. 679.

[55] Hughes, op. cit., pp. 661-664.

Stinnett has phrased the question in a particularly succinct fashion.[56] He would question whether the mere importance and demand for education are sufficient to provide professionalization for the field. Rather, he suggests that professionalization must be either trained into the recruit or else be located as an inherent element in his personality. Much of the answer to this question depends on whether professions have a concrete uniqueness in their training in specialized areas of knowledge or whether they are merely symbolic. From our earlier consideration of these matters, it would appear that professions do have some uniqueness of this type. Nevertheless, it is the symbol which is necessary to be conveyed to the public. The essence of this image would appear to be the spirit of professionality. The nature of this spirit and its capability of being formed in the teacher trainee must be further explored.

Recent evaluation of the spirit of professionality has not significantly altered from the more classic statements referred to earlier. Speaking of the teacher, Wittlin states that "while a vocation often presupposes routine jobs, a profession enshrines the meaning of a calling and an avowal to a higher purpose."[57] To what extent does education, in fact fulfill this expectation? One claim is that "teachers are probably farther away from real professionalism at this time than they would ever care to admit."[58] Continuing with this argument, the distinction is made between the positive image which he has of himself and the less flattering image of the teacher held by the public. It is suggested that the merger of these two images depends on the increased capacity of the teacher to serve society better.

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[56] Stinnett, *op. cit.*, p. 11-12.

Having noted earlier the problem of professionalizing student teachers, it now appears that several alternatives are open to education. First, an attempt may be made to train the future teacher to have a personal commitment to his field of specialization. Second, it may be assumed that such professionality is innate in personality and cannot be induced into the student. Third, the conclusion may be made that professionality is, in fact, only symbolic, thus lacking any reality. In this case, it is only important that the student be trained to act as a professional in order to reenforce the professional image of education for the public. Yet, as has been suggested, concern for developing and maintaining a public image might seriously inhibit the profession's relations with the public.[59] In other words, attention is focussed on symbolic professionality at the expense of developing a possible real professionality.

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[57] Wittlin, _op. cit._, p. 746.

[58] Vollmer and Mills, _op. cit._, p. 127.

[59] _Ibid._, p. 217.

The attempt to gain autonomous professionality by wresting power from lay leaders who control education has been referred to as militant professionalism.[60] Such militancy does not clearly exist in education which continues to be submissive to dominant groups in society. For this reason, the teacher himself lacks a clear image as a professional. Rather, he continues to hold to the traditional employee image which is in conflict with a professional image.[61] As an employee, the teacher continues to be controlled by the community, while as a professional, he is controlled by the profession, exclusive of the community. It is Corwin's contention that the reconciliation of these two images is necessary before education can become truly professional and solve its own problems.

Lacking an attitude of militant professionalism, it would appear that education, in order to accomplish its stated objectives, must create an image of professionality in the eyes of the public and the teachers, particularly the trainees. As has already been suggested, there is a discrepancy between the teacher's view of himself and the public's. In a study directed to this question,

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[60] Corwin, op. cit., p. 257. Such professionalism itself does not necessarily constitute real professionality. Rather, it is ideological in nature with the expectation of being formed into a reality. See the "Editors' Introduction" to Vollmer and Mills, op. cit.

[61] Corwin, ibid., pp. 221-229. Another brief statement on this topic relative to higher education may be found in Marvin Laser, "Toward a Sense of Community," Journal of Higher Education, XXXVIII (February, 1967), pp. 61-69.

Terrien found that over 90 per cent of a sample of the public stated that teaching is a profession.[62] Nevertheless, less than half of this same group included education in the same professional category with law, medicine, and other well accepted professions. Indeed, about 11 per cent of this group included education with labor and service groups.

There is general consensus in the belief that only with increased competence and skills which make a significant contribution to society can education gain a more satisfactory public image.[63] This implies the development of more "real" elements of professionality. The problems inherent in providing such a basis for a professional image have already been discussed. An alternative plan is to create an attitude of professionality in teacher trainees.

At least one study suggests that recent teacher trainees have not clearly removed the ambivalence in their role images.[64] A study of "old" high school teachers, defined as those having at least fifteen years experience and being at least forty years old showed that they have less discrepancy between their real self image and their ideal, as compared with "young" high school teachers. The "old" view of the teacher role, however, was described as one in which the teacher is to be "seen and not heard." This non-professional attitude is consistent with an employee image and tends to support the earlier discussion of this topic. While the younger teacher rejects this passive role, he tends to have a greater uncertainty as to his professional self image. Indeed, student teachers have the greatest discrepancy between ideal and real self images, with those who are experienced showing even more inconsistency than those who are inexperienced. Both experienced and inexperienced showed more ambivalence in their role images than construction workers, student barbers, factory workers and others. The strong implication here would be that professional training does not clarify the teacher's self image. In fact, it would appear that contact with teaching itself would further obfuscate the individual's self image as a teacher.

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[62] Frederic Terrien, "Who Thinks What About Educators?", American Journal of Sociology, LIX (September, 1953), pp. 150-158.

[63] See, for instance, Vollmer and Mills, op. cit., p. 217 ff, and p. 129. Also the more general statement by Howard S. Becker and James W. Carper, "The Development of Identification With an Occupation," American Journal of Sociology, LXI (January, 1956), pp. 289-298.

[64] Thomas E. Smith, "The Image of High School Teachers: Self and Other, Real and Ideal," The Journal of Educational Research, LIX (November, 1965), pp. 99-104.

It has been suggested that a student's identification with a professional image is most clear when there is a professional ideology, pride in new skills, and the development of highly specialized techniques.[65] The lack of a clear professional ideology in education has already been referred to. Wittlin's suggestion that people choose teaching as a career only for advancement in social status and to avoid the longer period of training required for other professions implies that interest in and identification with education are relatively low.[66] It would appear that the skills and techniques employed by education are rather diffuse, contributing further to apparent weak identification with the professional image.

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[65] Becker and Carper, op. cit.

In addition to the foregoing problems, it must be remembered that education's professionality should be largely centered in a spirit of service and commitment. Truly to convey an image of professionality to the student, it would appear necessary to develop such a spirit in him. It has been suggested by Jacobs, however, that higher education in general lacks the capability to influence students' values.[67] Instead of liberalizing the student from the prevailing social order, college tends to strengthen respect for it. While it is true that the influence studied was on a level significantly lower than that of professional education, Jacobs does introduce the importance of personality which was seen to filter through all educational experiences.

We can now raise the question of whether it is possible for education to professionalize its trainees effectively. If the independent and most influential variable should be personality, it would be unlikely that education could significantly alter the attitudes of those who are not already predisposed toward the value system represented by professional education. As Corwin has succinctly stated the point, "a theory of social organization and of roles is also a theory of personality."[68] The effort to form a nominal professionality in the teacher may be fruitless and inhibiting if real professionality is, indeed, largely dependent on personality factors in the individual. If personality is the critical factor in forming professional attitudes, however, it may well be that teacher recruitment becomes the more important means to be used in professionalizing the vocation.

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[66] Wittlin, op. cit., 754-755.

[67] Philip E. Jacobs, Changing Values in Culture (New York: Harper, 1957). For summarizing statements, see Philip E. Jacobs, "Does Higher Education Influence Student Values?", NEA Journal, XLVII (January, 1958), pp. 35-38 and David Riesman, "The 'Jacobs Report'," American Sociological Review, XXIII (December, 1958), pp. 732-738.

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[68] Corwin, *op. cit.*, p. 51.

II. THE TEACHER'S ROLE

A. The Development of Professional Abilities in Teachers

This study is concerned with a problem area which is generally lacking in adequate data. Brim claims a need exists for "studies of the way in which the educator . . . acquires knowledge of the roles he is to play and incorporate the necessary skills, motives and ideology as part of his own personality."[1] (Emphasis supplied.) Gross similarly argues that "we have little knowledge of the mechanisms involved in a student's acquisition of professional educational skills, values, and attitudes. We have no studies of changes in students' conceptions of the teacher's role during various stages of their training to become teachers or of shifts in role definition."[2] (Emphasis supplied.) While the explicit intent of these statements is to suggest the dearth of our knowledge about the problem, the underlined portions seem to imply that it is precisely because of the complexity of the teacher's role that this weakness continues to exist. The attempt to deal with this matter of the aspects of the teacher's role, which are broadly suggested in the noted references, will have to be dealt with at a later time in this study.

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[1] Orville Brim,Jr., Sociology and the Field of Education (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1958), pp. 54-55.

[2] Neal Gross, "The Sociology of Education," Sociology Today, ed. Robert Merton, Leonard Broom and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (New York: Basic Books,. 1959), p. 149.

Of particular importance now is the question of what progress has been made in attempting to deal with this problem. In a somewhat dated though still valuable work, Brookover refers to the problem of external or internal control. Noting that little is known about the characteristics of persons entering the teaching profession, he further states that "it is impossible to say at this time whether the behavior of teachers is the result of selection of teaching personnel or of the social forces that operate upon them after entering the school."[3] Employing a definite interactionist perspective, Brookover suggests that teachers react to the public image of their role once they find themselves in it. This question is of less importance to us here, although it does provide the basis for our return to the problem of how teachers do gain their professional image before they are, in fact, involved in their role responsibilities.[4] In addition, Brookover's statement does underscore, once again, the possibility that those forces which are most important for the formation of the teacher's role image are outside of the professional control exerted through teacher training programs.

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[3] Wilbur Brookover, A Sociology of Education (New York: American Book Company, 1955), p. 70.

[4] Leaning heavily on the classic work by Waller, Brookover suggests that choice of occupation is largely nonrational. See, for instance, Willard Waller, Sociology of Teaching (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1932), p. 378. Such a position would tend to strengthen the argument for a religious motivation to enter the teaching profession. Nevertheless, the problem of secularization has so altered the original meaning of "religious motivation" as to shed some doubt on such a facile conclusion. Lenski, for example, tends to attribute the choice of most vocations to the "Protestant Ethic." Gerhard Lenski, The Religious Factor (New York: Doubleday and Company, 1961), ch. 3. These points are of great relevance but cannot be handled adequately here. Rather, it would appear that studies can approximate the objective bases for choice of and performance in the teacher's role.

Much has been done in the past six or seven years, in particular, which provides direction in dealing with this problem. In the thorough and important work by Ryans, an attempt has been made to isolate characteristics of teachers which are not absolute in nature, but operate to provide high quality performance under proper conditions.[5] For instance, it was found that elementary and secondary teachers had different characteristics.[6] Further, more "successful" teachers tended to have differing motivations for entering the profession than those who were less "successful."[7] From these briefly stated conclusions, it would appear that teachers do have differing personal characteristics which operate to make them relatively more or less successful in the performance of their role behavior and that these are not necessarily linked with professional training.

Of further importance is the impact made upon the teacher's performance by the particular environmental conditions in which he teaches. The importance of flexibility in adjusting to situations has been clearly underlined by Flanders in his attempts to determine those factors which contribute to teacher influence.[8]

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[5] David Ryans, Characteristics of Teachers (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1960).

[6] *Ibid*., pp. 382-384.

[7] *Ibid*., pp. 394-395.

[8] Ned Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education,and Welfare, 1965).

As he states, "creative teaching is an expression of a particular teacher's personality, working with a particular group of students, in a particular subject."[9] Noting again the findings of Ryans, we might conclude, in this present limited context, that quality of teaching is not readily made applicable for the individual in a pre-packaged form. Rather, it would appear to be the result of a unique combination of personal and environmental factors.

Critics of present teacher training programs are quick to point out their limitations in training the teacher. Directing themselves to the particular problem of whether teacher training programs prepare one for the actual problems of teaching, one group of authors suggests that methods courses are not necessarily relevant for teaching.[10] The problems of the routine procedure of teaching are not always referred to in professional courses. For instance, the teacher receives no training in helping children to be interested in ideas.[11] Indeed, the basic problem of all teachers is the handling of the varied needs and demands of a complex group of students, resulting in differentiated patterns of response on the part of the teacher. The teacher's perception of a unique classroom situation, then, appears to be the critical factor upon which his role performance is built.

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[9] Ibid., p. 117.

[10] Seymour B. Sarason, Kenneth S. Davidson, and Burton Blatt, The Preparation of Teachers (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1962), p. 6.

[11] Ibid., pp. 3 and 6.

The question now appears to be whether the teacher training program can adequately deal with the reality of the demands made upon the teacher in the classroom. As the foregoing authors state, the "important question is whether such courses are relevant to the tasks confronting the teacher in the classroom."[12] As a practitioner, the responsibilities of the teacher are real. They are so diverse, however, that they may best be experienced rather than taught.

Still, it must be remembered that the teacher has responsibilities as a professional as well as a practitioner. While the former responsibilities are concerned with peers and the establishment of expertise, the latter are directed toward clients and the development of appropriate techniques. If the teacher training program is to function as described in the previous chapter, it must also attempt to cope with these additional responsibilities. These are often more ideal in nature than real. In addition, they are not always compatible with the demands made upon the practitioner. As a result, the tendency is to stress one role responsibility at the expense of the other.

It is not possible to reduce the problem simply to the question of teacher effectiveness, an educational concept which has been the basis for much study and debate. Indeed, even if this were the only objective of professionalizing programs, their efficiency would appear to be limited. The question must now also be concerned with the possibility that such courses may not be useful for the communication of the ideal and real elements which constitute professionality. Referring to this problem in its presently conceived form, Barr argues in the following manner:

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[12] Ibid.

> Part of the difficulty associated with the development of an adequate program for the measurement and prediction of teacher effectiveness arises from the facts that teaching means many different things, that the teaching act varies from person to person, and from situation to situation. Teachers teach different subjects and at different grade levels, they may not teach subjects but direct activities; besides classroom instruction they are presumed to be friends and counsellors of students, members of a school community, and members of various local, state, and national associations of professional workers.[13]

B. Components of the Teacher's Role

Before proceeding with the problem of teacher training as a professionalizing mechanism, consideration should now be given to those components of the teacher's role to which reference has been made. Unfortunately, there are far fewer data on the teacher as a professional than as a practitioner. Particularly on the question of the contribution made by teacher training programs to the development of the professional image in the trainee are the data lacking. There are several possible reasons for this disparity. The question of training for professionality is at least as complex as that of training for efficiency. In addition, there is more justification for public and private agencies to support studies on the question of how a teacher is to improve his performance in the classroom. It is also likely that education takes its professionalism for granted, thus leaving no room for inquiries which would question it. Since these components of a teacher's role have not been clearly delineated, it remains as part of this study to clarify them.

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[13] A. S. Barr, et. al. Wisconsin Studies of the Measurement and Prediction of Teacher Effectiveness (Madison, Wisconsin: Dembar Publications, 1961), p. 5. It should be noted here that including professional activities as part of the problem of teaching effectiveness is a more broad interpretation than that which usually limits it to classroom activities only.

This is not to say that the literature is completely lacking in reference to these components. Indeed, implicit references often appear, though they are usually not systematically presented or developed. In an early and almost forgotten work, reference is made to the "quack" in any profession who lacks the requisite knowledge and skill.[14] Woodring differentiates between professional knowledge and professional skills, claiming that the latter is concerned with "managing a classroom, working with children and young people, and in the supervision of the learning process."[15] Lieberman similarly differentiates between methods which stress the importance of developing student interest and techniques which are concerned with putting into effect a method to be used for developing student interest.[16]

In these statements, a distinct difference appears between the teacher's knowledge of what should be done in the classroom and the skill or ability employed in actual performance. While the university advocates knowledge based on research and rooted in theory, it is the practice itself which allows for the development of the skill or practice of the profession.[17] A teacher is effective as a practitioner, not simply because he knows what to do, but because he can, in fact, do it well in the actual situation. One detects the espousal of a similar view in Conant's well known work on the subject.[18] Differentiating between theory and practice, Conant appears to suggest that the actual encounter with the teaching experience is more important for the development of the capable practitioner than the consumption of theoretical knowledge. Conant, of course, is not alone in holding to this view. Lieberman suggests that the acquisition of technique is more dependent upon practical experience than the understanding of methods.[19] Woodring appears to be somewhat more skeptical than Conant as to the value of student teaching and suggests that teaching skills will be inadequately absorbed by the student in this experience, since "the development of such skills requires more time than is usually available for student teaching."[20]

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[14] A. R. Brubacher, Teaching: Profession and Practice (New York: The Century Company, 1927), p. 9.

[15] Paul Woodring, New Directions in Teacher Education (New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 11

[16] Lieberman, Education As a Profession, op. cit., p. 202.

What is of critical importance here is the apparent agreement which exists as to the inability of professionalizing courses to completely communicate all of the necessary skill to the neophyte practitioner; some of the required abilities appear to be innate. Referring to "general teaching," Worcester describes this as "a talent for teaching [which] is the same for each sex [and] is effective at all grade levels, with all types of pupils."[21] It is not necessary to develop the characteristics of the role at this point.[22] It is sufficient to state that the role requirements of the teacher as a practitioner appear to be categorized as methods, composed of the communicated theoretical information one may use in teaching, and skills, described as those abilities which are largely uncommunicated and applied in the process of teaching.

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[17] G. Lester Anderson, "Professional Education: Present Status and Continuing Problems," Education for the Professions, op. cit., p. 18

[18] James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963), ch. 6.

[19] Lieberman, loc. cit.

[20] Woodring, op. cit., p. 13.

Reference might be made again to the role responsibilities which the teacher has as a professional. The background for these was presented in the previous chapter, particularly in the question of whether professionality was real or merely a symbolic image. Essentially, the question stems from the historical fact that while the "teacher's role as a practitioner is an ancient one . . . his role as a member of the profession is a relatively recent one."[23] The problem of placing these role components into appropriate focus is apparently a function of the secularization of education. Further, it is this secularization which is also largely responsible for the split between the real and the ideal dimensions of professionality.

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[21] D. A. Worcester, "Some Assumptions, Explicitly and Implicitly Made, in the Investigations Here Summarized," Wisconsin Studies . . ., op. cit., p. 132.

[22] A detailed statement based upon the literature on the subject will be presented in the appendix where construction of the questionnaire will be discussed.

[23] Stinnett, op. cit., p. 11.

Weber conceives of the calling as a product of an age which bloomed from an earlier tradition in which it was nurtured.[24] Indeed, it becomes the link between the personality of some individuals and the social structure in which they are located. In this regard, Weber states, "the inner-worldly ascetic is the recognized 'man of a vocation', who neither inquires about nor finds it necessary to inquire about the meaning of his actual practice of a vocation within the world."[25] By filling some vocational role, whether professional or not, this calling is manifested in real action. Yet it is unlikely, in this context, that one could be trained to comply with such a calling. It would be more appropriate to conceive of the calling in our present world as a unique blend of personality and environmental factors, largely of a religious nature.

The increased responsibilities assumed by education in our modern world, however, could not be adequately met by individuals who had a call to teach. This growth and complexity of society coordinated with the trend toward secularization, thus "demanding higher levels of education and competence, and by urging teachers to move toward achieving standards comparable to other recognized professional groups."[26] These expectations became vital elements in the professional mechanisms of control. While it appears entirely possible for a teacher to be controlled by both an internal element referred to here as a call as well as an external, centered in professionalization, it would not be unlikely for one element to exist separately from the other. Thus, a teacher could be professionalized without having had a call while the reverse condition could also be expected to be found.

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[24] Weber, The Theory . . . , op. cit., p. 81. While Parsons' comments here appear to identify the calling with a moral obligation born in a modern western world view, he clearly notes that Weber attributes the decisive influence to an earlier Western tradition based upon Protestantism.

[25] Weber, The Sociology . . . , op. cit., p. 173.

One could then legitimately ask whether these mechanisms of control have differing objects. Becker stresses the point that the profession really controls abstract principles and not skills.[27] This contention is important here for two reasons. First, it anchors Becker's argument, referred to previously that professions are more of an image than a reality. Nevertheless, professions do have a reality which is often quite different from that provided by the image.[28] In addition, cross reference could be made to the earlier discussion of the practitioner's role and the apparent linkage which can now be made with the professional role. Apparently, the image supplied by a profession controls principles comparable to those which were referred to as methods. If, indeed, the professional image does not control skills, then it is entirely likely that these more real elements of the practitioner's role are linked with what has been referred to here as the calling.

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[26] Stinnett, op. cit., p. 12.

[27] Becker, Education for the Professions, op. cit., p. 35.

[28] Ibid., p. 40.

Reducing these ideas to the problem at hand, namely specification of those aspects of the professional role, it would appear that two could be located. First, there is the realm of abstract principles which is composed of professional spirit and professional image. These elements of the professional spirit motivate a person to perform a service to the client and the community beyond the reasonable expectation of a reward. Formed by the traditional understanding of a calling, these elements are not clearly controlled by the contemporary profession and are more resident in the individual. Also, there is the professional image, composed of those symbolic elements which a person conforms to in order to be identified as part of the larger professional affiliation. These elements do not have a traditional basis, and are formed by the profession itself, rather than being inherent in the individual. While the person is expected to conform to both spirit and image, it is the spirit which is usually considered to be the more vital element.[29]

There is also the realm of techniques, which is composed of professional methods and professional skills. These elements of professional methods provide a person with an understanding of the means recognized by the profession as appropriate for use by any professional in dealing with certain problems. While elements of professional skill may also be useful in dealing with such problems, they are not necessarily recognized, officially, by the profession nor are they necessarily capable of being employed by each professional. In the performance of his sub-role as a practitioner, the individual stresses the use of techniques. In his sub-role as professional, however, the individual is guided by the realm of abstract principles.

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[29] See, for example, the reference for n. 42, ch. 1.

From the foregoing discussion, it becomes apparent that the professionalizing mechanism of education cuts across both the practitioner and professional dimensions of the teacher's role responsibilities. While it may control the image element in the realm of abstract qualities and the methods element in techniques, it does not clearly control the elements of spirit and skills which are more resident in the individual. Thus, the capability of education to control and communicate the role requirements of the teacher would appear to be limited.

Briefly, the linkage of each pair of components appears to depend upon specific factors. From the prior analysis, one could draw the conclusion that spirit and skills are based upon internal, traditional elements of control. Stemming from an earlier religious tradition which produced a social environment capable of creating a significant impact upon the formation of a person's motivation, the professional spirit or calling became an integral part of the personality. While the reasons for the formation of a practitioner's skills are not readily traced, it would appear that they are also based upon personality characteristics.

As society became secularized, the traditional and social bases for skills and spirit apparently weakened. Nevertheless, the increased demand for teachers required the substitution or addition of components of professionality which would allow for the ready identification and control of the legitimate practitioner. These components are largely symbolic in nature since they must be readily communicated. The main function is to link the teacher with the profession which, in turn, may use the symbolic representations in communications with the larger society. For this reason, education often appears to present merely the image of a profession while lacking any reality as such. Relying on those acceptable methods which the legitimate practitioner employs, the profession attempts to control the theoretical knowledge of the teacher. Further, the behavior and associations of the teacher are controlled with the establishment of symbolic relationships which take the form of a professional image, acceptable to the profession itself and the larger community. With the acceptance of such methods and image, the profession is able to relate in a meaningful and predictable way with society and its clients.

C. Major Hypotheses

It is now possible to state four main hypotheses to be tested in this study. The first hypothesis is that professional education programs do produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning knowledge of methods to be used in his role performance. One could argue for this hypothesis on the strength that such methods are almost exclusively controlled by the profession.[30] With little competition from other forces, the professionalizing device should have a maximum of control in this area.

Second, professional education programs do not produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning teaching skills to be used in his role performance. This hypothesis rests upon the assumption that such skills are largely the function of personality. There is some disagreement among authorities on this point. While some would claim that such skills are innate, there are those others who suggest that they can be developed through experience.[31] Undoubtedly, there would be disagreement on the nature of these skills. This hypothesis rests on the belief that while the latter claim has merit, the experience afforded by student teaching is probably too brief and artificial to allow for adequate development of these skills.[32] Indeed, there is little question that many of these skills may be employed by many persons who lack such experience.

Third, professional education programs do not produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning his image of professionalization. The opinion supporting this hypothesis would contend that this image is far too complex to be adequately communicated by such means. Odenweller informs us that "student teaching has the lowest correlation with professional information."[33] While the meaning of "professional information" is left undefined, the context would suggest that the concept is comparable to what has been referred to here as image.

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[30] This is not to say that there is agreement within the profession as to what this knowledge or methods should consist of. As Conant states, "Professors of education have not yet discovered or agreed upon a common body of knowledge that they all feel should be held by school teachers before the student takes his first full-time job." Conant, op. cit., p. 141.

[31] See earlier references in this chapter to work by Lieberman (n. 16) who believes such skills are developed with experience and Worcester (n. 21) who refers to such skills as innate.

[32] This opinion is shared by Woodring whose work was referred to earlier in this chapter (n. 20).

Fourth, professional education programs do not produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning his spirit of professionalization. In some respects, this is the core hypothesis, since the historical development of a secularized profession of education rests upon the assumption that it is this spirit, nurtured by the calling, which has been lost for the profession as a whole. This is not to say, however, that it still does not reside in particular individuals who may continue to be influenced by some remnant of the tradition.

D. Personality Factors

Before considering some further objectives of this study, it would be appropriate to acknowledge the relevance of personality factors, since their latent importance has been referred to on a number of occasions so far. Relatively early in the history of studies on teacher effectiveness, the importance of personality factors became apparent. Odenweller states "personality has a closer relation to the quality of teaching than has student teaching or scholarship or any other trait in the study."[34] It does not appear, however, that this relation is isolated from the influence of other factors. Flanders claims that particularly effective teaching is a manifestation of the teacher's personality in a particular environmental situation.[35]

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[33] Arthur L. Odenweller, Predicting the Quality of Teaching (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936), p. 3.

Agreeing with this claim of Flanders, Ryans puts forth as a basic assumption for a theory of teacher behavior the belief that "teacher behavior is a function of situational factors and characteristics of the individual teacher."[36] The work of Cattell is used by Ryans as a basis for the development of a paradigm illustrating the integration of teacher behavior.[37] The types of interacting situational conditions referred to by Ryans at this point are patterns of interaction with pupils in the teaching situation, particular characteristics of the relevant school system, particular education experiences such as teacher education courses, and conventions and values of the teacher's social group and culture. It is the unique influence of these conditions upon the teacher's personality which provide for his behavior.

For our interest, two of these patterns, interaction with pupils and characteristics of the school system have no relevance, since these are environmental circumstances which the student teacher would not have experienced. While student teaching may be a situational factor interacting with basic personality traits of the student, it has already been noted that there are limitations in the view that student teaching provides adequate control of the teacher's behavior. It would appear likely, then, that cultural and social group values have a potentially significant impact to make upon the teacher's behavior. Particularly when these values are of a religious nature, one could assume that impact on personality would be characteristic of commitment to a calling. Thus, these factors would appear to operate separately from professionalizing mechanisms and be influential in forming the "spirit" of the teacher.

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[34] Ibid.

[35] Flanders, loc. cit.

[36] Ryans, op. cit., p. 16.

[37] Ibid., p. 18.

One of Ryans' main postulates is that "teacher behavior is characterized by some degree of consistency."[38] The extent to which cultural values cohere with personality traits of the individual should provide the consistency referred to. It is at this point that skill and spirit would appear to merge, since spirit would probably be modified by the cultural values and skill by personality factors.

One could claim some validity for this view by reference to Ryans' proposition that "certain teacher characteristics are related to the earlier youth activities of the teacher."[39] Other characteristics are claimed to be related to college grades or age. Whether these propositions are valid is of little importance here. The point to be stressed is that the teacher's personal and social characteristics would appear to have their sources in both the learned and unlearned backgrounds of the person.[40] These characteristics would appear to influence the teacher's skills and spirit which would remain relatively uninfluenced by professionalizing mechanisms.

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[38] Ibid., p. 19.

[39] Ibid., p. 25.

While Ryans stresses the contributions made by Cattell to the study of teacher personality, others refer to the importance of his 16 PF Test for studying these personality characteristics. Getzels and Jackson survey the findings of four studies which apply this test to groups of teachers and conclude that "the test encourages the use of hypotheses that are more sophisticated than those linking 'adjustment-maladjustment' or some such dichotomous variable to the complex phenomena of teaching and of teaching effectiveness."[41] For this reason, the 16 PF Test would appear congenial for our purposes of studying personality here. Further reference to these earlier studies will be made in a subsequent chapter.

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[40] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[41] J. W. Getzels and P. W. Jackson, "The Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963), pp. 553-554.

E. The Implications of These Factors for Development of the Teacher's Role

Turning to the work of Cattell itself, one can discern in it a clear assertion of the value of the 16 PF Test for measuring temperament factors directly.[42] The use of such factors is an attempt to arrive at the measurement of motivation and interest of persons who are involved in some professional endeavor. Indeed, Cattell refers to the particular relevance of this problem for the selection of personnel in the field of education. He notes that the traditional attempt to select personnel on the basis of ability-achievement tests does not adequately measure the motivation of the person. A further suggestion is made that a "reason for a low priority of motivation measurement in industry and education has been that *the situation*--the well-regulated classroom situation or the competitive search for a livelihood--*has been assumed to generate sufficient motivation to make most individual differences of performance largely functions of differences of ability*."[43] (Emphasis supplied.) Considered in the light of the earlier statements on the importance of environment in forming behavioral patterns, this statement provides a proper balance and suggests the importance of more latent personality factors.

The questions of motivation and interest would appear to be comparable to the concept of professional spirit as previously

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[42] Raymond B. Cattell, *Personality and Motivation Structure and Measurement* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1957), p. 782.

[43] *Ibid.*, p. 781.

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developed. The sense of Cattell's argument, then, is to suggest that one cannot adequately measure the motivation that a person has to enter education and to fulfill his role responsibilities in a committed fashion by merely determining whether he has the appropriate ability or training. Further, it cannot be assumed that a person will develop the necessary motivation to teach once he assumes his responsibilities in some form of classroom context. In summary, motivation and interest tend to be controlled in a more complete fashion by internal and traditional systems of control than by external and immediate circumstances.

Considering ways in which prediction of interests which are not based upon general personality factors, Cattell cites three.[44] Some occupational interests may arise from earlier sentiments and internalized values and ideals which are uniquely appropriate for the stimulation of interest in that field. In addition, there may be more abstract sentiments, for example, religion and theoretical-philosophical interests, "which appear to last with little change through the individual's adult life and which therefore influence and have predictive value for more specific fields of potential career interest."[45] Finally, the claim is made that the most significant factor in creating satisfaction in fulfilling job responsibilities is the existence of certain drives or ergs in a person. Since the differential appearance of these drives in persons is relatively great, one could assume that they provide a real basis upon which to make some prediction of occupational adjustment. For our interests, all of these factors are clearly internal in nature and it would appear to be unlikely that they would be modified to any meaningful extent by the influence of professionalizing mechanisms.

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[44] Ibid., pp. 782-783.

[45] Ibid., p. 782.

Remembering the earlier argument which claimed that the spirit and skill dimensions of the professional role were based on internal and traditional elements of control, it is now possible to state two further hypotheses. First, there is a stronger correlation of personality factors with skills and spirit than with methods and image. Second, a reciprocal proposition would state that there is a stronger correlation of training factors with methods and image than with skills and spirit. These two hypotheses are not clearly based on the theoretical framework of Ryans and Flanders, though they are more clearly reflective of Cattell's work. While the interaction of situational factors with teacher characteristics is not clearly relevant for this study since too many of these factors occur subsequent to the student teaching experience, nevertheless, the importance of considering the influence of personality characteristics is clear. The particular claim being made here is that these characteristics operate selectively, as do the professionalizing influences of teacher education.

Further questions are implied in these hypotheses. Of major importance is the variable of religion which may be seen as a critical factor in the personality makeup of the individual teacher, particularly as it has been the traditional basis for professional spirit. The theoretical basis for making such a claim is strong and, as has been suggested, there must be some solid ground for attempting to justify a hypothesis concerning teacher characteristics and their effects.[46]

It has been noted that some authorities claim that professionalism is more of an ideal created by a profession itself and is seldom accomplished in reality. The problem appears to be whether the profession exerts control over all aspects of the teacher's role or only those which are concerned with his effective performance. While the argument which has been presented here would claim that the latter condition is more likely, the question remains moot at this point and open for further consideration at a later point.

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[46] Getzels and Jackson, op. cit., p. 576.

III. DESCRIPTION OF METHOD AND SAMPLE

A. Description of Design

The preceding chapters have provided us with an understanding of two fundamental patterns of change in education. These have become the theoretical points of reference for the initiation of this study. First, there is the loss of the original religious foundation of education and its increasing secularization. Secondly, there is the shift in definition of the teacher's role as the basis for its control has been altered. The resulting ambiguity has produced a multitude of studies which have attempted to understand the components of "good teaching." Most of these have been unsatisfactory. The contention here has been that proper consideration has not been given to this historical framework from which the present understanding of the teacher's role must be derived. Also, adequate attention has not been given to the study of student teaching as a means of regaining control of the definition of the teacher's role by the profession.

The original purpose of this research, then, was to design a diagnostic study, which attempts "to discover causal or other relations between underlying factors and the surface ones."[1] The hypotheses were clearly established from the theoretical framework referred to and were the basis for data collection. Further, a diagnostic study characteristically produces conclusions which may point the way to some form of remedial action.[2] While such a practical objective is not the immediate concern of this study, it is believed that the application of its findings to problems in education may be possible.

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[1] Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations, Part I (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), pp. 53-54.

More specifically, the design of this study rests upon the logic of Mill's second canon, usually referred to as the method of difference. This procedure argues that:

> If an instance in which the phenomenon under investigation occurs, and an instance in which it does not occur, have every circumstance in common save one, that one occurring only in the former; the circumstance in which alone the two instances differ is the effect, or the cause, or an indispensable part of the cause, of the phenomenon.[3]

The particular form taken by this study is that of a "before-after" experiment. Specifically, a group of student teachers was chosen and their attitudes on certain aspects of the teacher's role were measured prior to exposure to the experimental variable of professional training. There is also measurement of the personality characteristics of the group which were established prior to the research situation. After these exposures, the attitudes were once again measured by the same instrument in order to determine the change in attitudes.

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[2] Ibid.

[3] Quoted in John Madge, The Tools of Social Science (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1965), p. 53.

While the general form of this design is classical, it is not without its weaknesses.[4] Not only may it be difficult to determine the relationship of relevant variables, it is also quite likely that other variables, which were not considered previously, have importance for this study. For this reason, the design must allow for the isolation of such variables which would provide additional concepts and development of the original theory. It is expected that factor analysis will prove particularly beneficial in clarifying such concepts.

B. Description of Population

The population chosen for this study consisted of all Geneva College and Westminster College education majors taking a professional education program in primary and secondary education for the period of 1965-1966. Since it was known prior to the study that this group would not consist of more than 200 students, it was not deemed necessary to employ specific sampling techniques. Thus, an attempt was made to include as many of the total population in the final study as possible since the cost factor was not significant. For practical purposes, however, the final group of students will be referred to as the sample.

The immediate reason for use of this population was the ready access which the researcher, a member of the Geneva College faculty, had to both groups. There are other good reasons, however, for using this population. First, both schools are very similar and well accepted in Western Pennsylvania. Second, both schools are private and liberal arts in emphasis with very strong religious and Protestant traditions which make them more attractive for this particular study than state related colleges. Third, while Westminster's education program is larger than Geneva's, both are comparable and adhere closely to the standards prescribed by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. For this reason, it is not inconceivable that generalizing from this population to a larger universe with a similar curriculum would be possible. Thus, the possibility of a practical application of this study would likely remain. Nevertheless, it should be remembered that the student body of these colleges themselves will not necessarily be comparable to those in colleges with similar curricula.

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[4] These are well stated in William J. Goode and Paul K. Hatt, Methods in Social Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952), pp. 78-81.

A statistical rendering of the original population and the sample can be found in Table 1. Of the total population of 189 students, 37 were lost for various reasons leaving a total of 152 for whom data were collected. The reasons for these losses are given in Table 2. Since 5 additional students were lost due to incomplete data being submitted, the final sample consists of 147 students for whom a more complete description will be given later in this chapter.

TABLE 1

POPULATION AND FINAL SAMPLE

	Total Available	Lost	Total Used
Westminster			
First semester-elementary	19	2	17
First semester-secondary	47	9	38
First semester-secondary	31	10	21
Second semester-elementary	25	3	22
	122	24	98
Geneva			
First semester	36	2	34
Second semester	31	11	20
	67	13	54

TABLE 2

REASONS FOR LOSSES OF STUDENTS FROM POPULATION

Westminster	
No student teaching	3
Absent from first phase	6
Graduated at mid term	2
Army reserve training	1
Christian education program - no student teaching	2
No second phase returned	9
Unavailable because of teaching assignment	1
	24
Geneva	
Absent from first phase	2
No second phase returned	6
No personality test	4
Left school due to illness	1
	13

C. Description of the Curriculum

It is not possible to define clearly what constitutes a professional curriculum in education, since there is no uniformly defined agency which has final authority as to the nature of this curriculum. Conant describes professional education as those courses which are taught by professors of education and related to the theory and practice of public school teaching.[5] While such a definition may be adequate for the purposes of defining a professional curriculum, it does not allow for the definition of a professional, since professions are regulated by law or have the sanction of law.[6] Thus, certification standards become the basis for defining a professional.

For most professions, "certification of competence in a particular area of specialization is vested in the professional association."[7] In this way, a merger of legal and professional standards for the control of the profession is possible. Education, however, is notoriously weak in exercising such control. Indeed, as Anderson states, "the teaching profession appears to be the profession with the least voice in the licensing of its own members."[8] In addition, the "extraordinary proliferation of certificates [is] a prime reason why teaching is not recognized as a profession."[9]

For legal purposes, the certified teacher is considered to be a professional teacher. Nevertheless, such persons experience greatly varied types of curricula. No longer does the certified teacher come from a "normal" school or state teachers' college, exclusively. The increasing use of the liberal arts college for teacher training has greatly broadened the type of education offered to teachers. Indeed, in such colleges, decisions concerning professional requirements may be made by a non-professional registrar or someone other than a professional educator may teach a course required in the education curriculum. For these reasons, professional education could not be defined in simple terms as those used by Conant.

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[5] Conant, The Education of American Teachers, op. cit., p. 21.

[6] Stinnett, The Profession of Teaching, op. cit., p. 39.

[7] Ibid., p. 47.

[8] Archibald W. Anderson, "The Teaching Profession: An Example of Diversity in Training and Function," Education for the Professions, op. cit., p. 159.

[9] Stinnett, op. cit., p. 48.

As a variable in this study, professional education means that semester, usually referred to as the "professional semester," in which student teaching is taken. While professional courses may be taken before this time, the lack of consistency in both course offerings and the semester in which they are given removes the feasibility of using such courses for experimental purposes. Further, it is believed that the experience of student teaching, in which the student is supposedly under the guidance of a "master teacher," constitutes the strongest professional control of the student's training.

Though liberal arts colleges, both Geneva and Westminster conform closely to Pennsylvania requirements for educational curricula. These requirements are given in Appendix A. Westminster's education program is larger than Geneva's and includes a graduate program. For these reasons, it may provide greater flexibility and deviate somewhat more from state requirements, though fully approved by the state nevertheless. Further, Westminster makes a greater distinction between its secondary and elementary education programs than Geneva does.

Both schools require the minimum 36 hours of elementary education courses recommended by the state. Upon completion of the program, Geneva grants a BS in Education while Westminster gives a BA. Geneva further requires 24-36 hours in a secondary academic major while Westminster requires 24 hours. Neither school provides a major in secondary education, since the major must be taken in an academic field. The student becomes certified by taking the appropriate professional courses. Pennsylvania requires 18 hours of such courses for secondary certification. As required by Geneva and Westminster, the listing of these courses is given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

REQUIRED COURSES FOR SECONDARY CERTIFICATION

Westminster	Hrs.	Geneva	Hrs.
Social Foundations of Education	3	Social and Philosophical Foundations of Modern Education	3
Reading in the Secondary Schools	3	Educational Psychology	3
Principles, Methods and Curriculum in the Secondary School	3	Methods Course	3
Supervised Student Teaching in the Secondary Schools	6	Student Teaching	6
Educational Psychology and Measurements	3	Educational Measurements	3
		Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools	3
	18		21

It should be noted here that Geneva requires a methods course which is in addition to the minimum state requirements for secondary certification. Thus, methods courses are considered here to be marginal for professional education and will not be defined as professional courses.

At both schools, the professional semester may be taken in either semester of the senior year. In addition, Geneva provides the opportunity to take student teaching in the summer. The program for the professional semester at both schools is given in Table 4.

TABLE 4

PROGRAM FOR PROFESSIONAL SEMESTER

Westminster - Elementary		Geneva - Elementary	
Student Teaching	6 hrs.	Student Teaching	6 hrs.
Principles, Methods and Curriculum	3 hrs.	Educational Measurements	3 hrs.
Visual Aids	3 hrs.	Speech Correction and the Classroom Teacher	3 hrs.
Language Arts	3 hrs.		
	15 hrs.		12 hrs.

Westminster - Secondary		Geneva - Secondary	
Student Teaching	6 hrs.	Student Teaching	6 hrs.
Principles, Methods and Curriculum	3 hrs.	Educational Measurements	3 hrs.
Visual Aids	3 hrs.	Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools	3 hrs.
	12 hrs.		12 hrs.

The core of this semester is student teaching. Geneva provides for ten weeks of student teaching, on a full day basis, with periodic seminars of one and one-half hours duration. Westminster provides six weeks of student teaching for secondary students and seven weeks for elementary students, both on a full day basis, with weekly seminars and faculty consultations.

It is necessary at both schools to take some professional courses prior to the professional semester. These are taken in either the sophomore or junior year. At both schools, these courses would be in educational psychology and social foundations of education. For the reasons stated above, any methods courses taken at this time would not be included here as professional courses. It is important to note, however, that those courses designated by the state as professional in nature are not limited to the professional semester.

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D. Description of Research Instruments

Two instruments were used to collect the data for this study; a personally constructed questionnaire and the 16 Personality Factor Test published by The Institute for Personality and Ability Testing. Since the next chapter will be concerned with the question of personality in this study, further consideration will be given to this latter instrument at that time.

The advantages of a questionnaire in a study of this type are numerous. Instead of an interview, the questionnaire has greater uniformity in both method of administration and in its impersonal nature. These considerations were important in a design which was closely linked with theory. Open end questions were used at a number of points in order to allow for enrichment of the quantitative data. In addition, the questionnaire reduced the possibility of even greater sampling mortality while providing greater efficiency in time and effort on the part of the researcher. Further, the diagnostic nature of the design would not gain the greatest benefit from the depth approach of an interview. Of critical importance was the possibility that the researcher, as a faculty member, might be more inclined to receive biased answers in an interview than in a questionnaire.

The face sheet data consisted of fourteen questions concerned with personal characteristics of the respondent. Social class was determined through use of the Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position which utilizes the father's occupation and education. Occupation was further specified through the use of salary data, thereby allowing for a more precise location of the father's social class.

The remainder of the questionnaire was built around four clusters of questions which were designed to test each of the four main hypotheses. These are referred to as the Methods, Skills, Image, and Spirit variables and are related to the hypotheses in that order. The first two deal with the question of teacher as practitioner and the last two with teacher professionality. Together, they constitute the components of what has been described as the teacher's role. The complete questionnaire, divided into its components and the face sheet data, is given in Appendix B.

Several problems in constructing the questionnaire were faced by the researcher. First, it was necessary to have a clear understanding of what constituted a professionally appropriate response to the questions. Lacking the type of training which would be necessary to provide this knowledge, there was a need to rely heavily on the statements of acknowledged experts in the field of education. For each question, therefore, there is a relevant source which helps to support and clarify the meaning of the question. These are also given in Appendix B.

In addition, the use of this approach in questionnaire construction was helpful in determining what problems should be included for the relevant variable, since it was quite important that such decisions not be made arbitrarily. For instance, the question of stimulating motivation in a class may be both a skill and a method of teaching. A further problem has to do with the need to communicate information of a somewhat technical nature to students who are undergoing some professional training. Obviously, the problem of communication is reduced when there is reliance upon the terminology used by experts with whom the students are already familiar.

This strong reliance on literature in the field for the purpose of questionnaire construction, then, was an attempt to maintain a close linkage between the model of professionality and the collection of data. It was still necessary, however, for the researcher to make most of the decisions concerning questions on the matter of professionality. There was always an effort to rely on the traditional service orientation of a profession in deciding whether a question should be included under Spirit, while consideration was given to the probable professional influence exerted on a student in classifying a question as relevant for a professional image. Hopefully, the number of possible errors in judgment have been reduced with the use of this approach and objectivity significantly increased.

E. Administration of Instruments

For reasons discussed above, the professional semester and, in particular, the period of student teaching, must be considered as the experimental variable of professional education. Since the design calls for testing of attitudes before and after the training period, the questionnaire was given to the same classes immediately prior to the professional semester and in the last week of this period.

The population consisted of six classes which are shown with the administration date of the questionnaire in Table 5.

TABLE 5

RELEVANT DATA FOR ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Geneva First semester - elementary and secondary	1st phase 2nd phase	August 30, 1965 January 20, 1966
Geneva Second semester - elementary and secondary	1st phase 2nd phase	January 28, 1966 May 16, 1966
Westminster First semester - elementary	1st phase 2nd phase	September 17, 1965 January 28, 1966
Westminster First and second semester - secondary	1st phase 2nd phase	September 17, 1965 May 13, 1966
Westminster First and second semester - secondary	1st phase 2nd phase	September 17, 1965 May 13, 1966
Westminster Second semester - elementary	1st phase 2nd phase	January 28, 1966 May 13, 1966

The fact that the secondary program at Westminster extends beyond a semester should be noted here. It is not known at present what effect this longer period between the administration of the two testing periods might have had on the results. Since the personality variable was assumed to be stable, the 16 PAT was administered at the most convenient time under the particular circumstances. Usually the length of time involved in completing both questionnaire and personality test made it necessary to allow the student to complete the test at his leisure and then return it to the researcher. The researcher himself administered all of the instruments under approximately similar classroom circumstances. In several cases, completion of the questionnaire outside of these conditions and its separate return to the researcher were necessary.

F. Description of the Pre-Test

An early form of the final questionnaire was administered to twenty-four Geneva students who took student teaching during the summer of 1965. This was done at the completion of their training.

As a result of the pre-test, five questions were eliminated from the questionnaire because it appeared that they did not provide sufficient diversity in response. This change further produced an equal number of fifteen questions for each of the variables. In addition, minor changes were made in the wording of the remaining questions.

Several items were also added to the face sheet data. These were questions concerned with social class, size of high school graduating class and size of town in which high school was located, attitudes toward teachers and whether the individual was engaged to be married.

G. Description of Sample

As was noted in an earlier section, the final sample consisted of 147 students. A breakdown of this sample according to the face sheet data provides a rather concise description of it. These statistics appear in Table 6 and are based on the first phase responses to the questionnaire.

TABLE 6

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

	Westminster	Geneva	Total
Sex			
Male	18	15	33
Female	75	39	114
	93	54	147
Age			
20 or under	26	11	37
21 - 23	67	38	105
24 - 26	-	1	1
27 - 29	-	-	-
30 - 32	-	-	-
33 - 35	-	1	1
36 or over	-	3	3
	93	54	147

TABLE 6--Continued

	Westminster	Geneva	Total
Grade Point Average			
A-	10	5	15
B+	16	7	23
B	18	12	30
B-	12	9	21
C+	28	9	37
C	9	12	21
C-	-	-	-
D+	-	-	-
D	-	-	-
	93	54	147
Married			
Yes	4	8	12
No	89	46	135
	93	54	147
Engaged			
Yes	10	8	18
No	80	43	123
No response	3	3	6
	93	54	147
Religion			
Protestant	90	41	131
Catholic	1	13	14
Jewish	-	-	-
Other	1	-	1
No response	1	-	1
	93	54	147
Religious Attendance			
Less than once a month	8	2	10
Once a month to once a week	32	6	38
Once a week	45	33	78
More than once a week	7	12	19
No response	1	1	2
	93	54	147
Expected Grade Level of Teaching			
Elementary	34	33	67
Secondary	53	17	70
College	3	1	4
No response	3	3	6
	93	54	147

TABLE 6--Continued

	Westminster	Geneva	Total
Influence of Teachers			
Many had influence	10	10	20
Some had influence	41	18	59
Few had influence	40	26	66
None had influence	2	-	2
	93	54	147
Likeability of Teachers			
Many were likeable	65	34	99
Some were likeable	25	17	42
Few were likeable	3	3	6
None were likeable	-	-	-
	93	54	147
Capability of Teachers			
Many were capable	28	16	44
Some were capable	54	33	87
Few were capable	11	5	16
None were capable	-	-	-
	93	54	147
Community Size			
Under 500	4	1	5
500-10,000	31	23	54
10,000-50,000	35	24	59
50,000-100,000	11	4	15
100,000-500,000	5	-	5
Over 500,000	7	2	9
	93	54	147
Graduating Class Size			
Under 50	2	2	4
50 - 100	11	11	22
100 - 250	33	22	55
250 - 500	33	17	50
Over 500	13	2	15
No response	1	-	1
	93	54	147
Social Class			
Social Class I	21	6	27
Social Class II	32	3	35
Social Class III	22	18	40
Social Class IV	17	24	41
Social Class V	-	3	3
No response	1	-	1
	93	54	147

TABLE 6--Continued

	Westminster	Geneva	Total
Father's Education			
Less than 7th grade	1	5	6
7th through 9th	7	5	12
Part high school	6	10	16
High school graduate	24	19	43
Part college	9	6	15
College graduate	30	4	34
Graduate or professional training	16	5	21
	93	54	147

As would be expected, the sample is largely composed of females. Only among Geneva students were there older persons aged thirty-three or more. Further, it was the Geneva sample which was composed of a much higher proportion of married persons. Significantly, it is also the Geneva sample which, proportionately speaking, has a larger number of men in the sample.

These facts take on particular meaning when a comparison of social class is considered. It is quite apparent that the social class of Westminster students is significantly higher than that of Geneva students. This fact is also apparent when one considers the education level of the fathers of these students. Noting briefly the community and high school graduating class size, it also appears that Westminster students come from larger urban areas, though the differences here are not as pronounced as they are for social class.

Generalizing from these facts, one comes to the conclusion that Westminster students come from suburban, upper middle class backgrounds with fathers in professional, business or highly skilled occupations. Geneva students, however, are largely from small town, lower middle class backgrounds with fathers in smaller businesses or unskilled labor occupations. Indeed, Geneva is composed largely of commuting students whose fathers work in the steel industry with only a sprinkling of students from eastern urban areas. The midwestern rural population also makes a significant contribution to the Geneva student body. Westminster, however, is largely composed of a resident student body. While many Geneva students hold part-time jobs which take up a good bit of their time, it is unlikely that such a condition holds for Westminster students.

Linking these facts with the observations made on the sex, age, and marital status of these students, certain general conclusions may be shown. First, it is quite likely that the reasons for entering teaching are different for the Geneva student as compared to the Westminster student. The Geneva student probably reflects the classic use of teaching for vertical social mobility.[10] This assumption would tend to explain the reason why more men are in education at Geneva and why more older, married people are similarly involved in education. Apparently, Geneva students are more pragmatic in their choice of education as a career, seeking security and higher social class.

Westminster students, however, do not appear to be so motivated. Lacking the need for security, this largely female group will undoubtedly rely on future husbands for establishing its social class. Thus, it is more likely that it will be motivated by service and ideologically altruistic goals in its teaching. This possibility would suggest a second conclusion, namely, that the Westminster student may be more professionally oriented.

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[10] See, for example, Brookover, A Sociology of Education, op. cit., pp. 172-174. Referring to an early study by Greenhoe, Brookover describes the teacher as coming from a small, rural, lower class culture with parents with little education. Elsewhere, the assertion that teachers are upwardly mobile is clear, p. 276.

The fact that Westminster students are more desirous of teaching on the level of secondary school and above is significant, since such motivation is generally considered to be indicative of higher professional status.[11] It is entirely possible that one could see this motivation as religiously based. Yet, the religious motivation at Geneva is apparently higher if one considers the factor of church attendance. It is also possible that the Westminster student is oriented to the education profession because of the familiar image of respectability attached to it.[12] Such an image may or may not carry a service ideal with it. Whether there is such a service orientation for the Westminster student cannot be determined at this point.

In general, it appears that the Westminster group is more homogeneous than the Geneva students. In addition to the age and sex factor referred to before, the religious factor should be noted here.[13] While neither school had a Jewish student in student teaching at the time, the Geneva group had a much higher percentage of Catholic students. This relationship is characteristic of the total student body. Geneva's homogeneity centers in the fact that a larger proportion of the students come from the local area, a fact which is not apparent from the statistics. Probably the most pronounced basis for comparison, however, remains the social class factors as described before.

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[11] Ibid., p.194.

[12] Ibid., pp. 232-251.

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[13] The Westminster student who replied "Other" to the question on religion was Unitarian. Significantly, in the second phase, she referred to herself as Protestant.

IV. DESCRIPTION OF PERSONALITY FACTORS

A. Characteristics of the Teacher Personality

It is important when initiating a discussion of personality factors to clarify the level with which we are concerned. Particularly for the role of the teacher, there is a tendency for the occupation to mold the personality.[1] Thus, one can note the contrasts between the personalities of experienced and inexperienced teachers.[2]

Characteristically, the teacher is described as developing a rather aloof and dignified manner. As Waller states, "there is first that certain inflexibility or unbendingness of personality which is thought to mark the person who has taught."[3] Yet these patterns of personality are considered to be rather superficial and readily altered by the teacher.[4] Indeed, it is largely a function of the forms of interaction between teacher and students and the "adjustment of personality to teaching differs according to the grade of teaching and the subject taught."[5] Such patterns may also be molded by the expectations which the public holds of the teacher's role.[6]

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[1] Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, op. cit., ch. 22.

[2] Ibid., pp. 435-436.

[3] Ibid., p. 381.

[4] Ibid., pp. 384-389.

[5] Ibid., p. 413.

[6] Brookover, A Sociology of Education, op. cit., ch. 9.

The more important question here is not what the teacher becomes but, rather, what he is when he beings teaching. This requires the isolation of more basic characteristics which are at the core of the personality and not as superficially developed as suggested by Waller. While more difficult to determine, these patterns are more relevant for this study and its concern with the student teacher.

Early studies do not clearly distinguish such a personality type. Nevertheless, the data suggest that the core personality characteristics of the beginning teacher are the opposite of those superficial characteristics which he feels pressured to assume.[7] Referring to a study by Pechstein, Brookover indicates that the beginning teacher tends to be introverted.[8] As described by Greenhoe, the teacher is rather docile and apathetic to community affairs, though highly oriented to particicipation in religious behavior.[9] Terrien characterizes the teacher's personality as being rather marginal in commitment to the profession, more inclined to follow than to lead, with a strong sense of service and a cooperative, somewhat resigned spirit.[10] These characteristics would suggest that the basic personality of the teacher is not clearly rational in its perception of the teacher's role.[11]

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[7] This contradiction between acquired and basic personality characteristics may well be the reason for the conflict in the teacher's role which is so often referred to. See, for instance, Brookover, ibid.. ch. 10.

[8] Brookover, ibid.. p. 276.

[9] As described in Brookover, ibid., p. 240.

[10] Also described by Brookover, ibid., pp. 274-275.

Reference is again made to the work of Ryans and Cattell who are more directly concerned with the problem of basic personality characteristics of teachers. As stated in an earlier chapter, they describe these characteristics as being consistent and related to the earlier youth activities of the teacher. Largely internal in nature, they would be relatively resistant to the modifying influences of the professional requirements.

Ryans found the "good" teacher to combine warmth and friendliness with imagination in contrast to the "poor" teacher who was rather aloof and dull in his approach.[12] These generalized findings, then, would tend to suggest that the personality of the better teacher resists formation into the stereotyped pattern described earlier. Further, these teachers said they entered the profession because of its service character and intellectual nature while those teachers who scored low on measurement of teacher qualities, said they entered teaching because they were advised by parents, found teaching to be an attractive position in their community, or because they were attracted by the favorable prospects for advancement.[13] These findings would tend to confirm the earlier claim that the teacher is not clearly rational in his perspective of the teacher's role, or if he is, he probably will not be a good teacher.

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[11] As Waller contends, the choice of any vocation is largely irrational and not controlled by rational considerations of pay but social experience, social class tradition and abilities. Op. cit., p. 378. While this pattern of irrational choice may no longer clearly exist, it is quite likely that it would reflect a possible change in the professionalization of the role.

[12] Ryans, Characteristics of Teachers, op. cit., p. 382.

B. Description of the Cattell 16 Personality Factor Test

We can now turn to the 16 Personality Factor Test itself as an instrument which tests those factors with which we are concerned. This test consists of 16 factors which are as follows:

	High Score	Low Score
Factor A	Cyclothymia (warmth, sociability)	Schizothymia (aloofness, stiffness)
Factor B	General Intelligence (bright)	Mental Defect (dull)
Factor C	Emotional Stability (maturity, calmness)	Dissatisfied Emotionality (immature, unstable)
Factor E	Dominance (aggressive, competitive)	Submission ("milk-toast," mild)
Factor F	Surgency (enthusiastic)	Desurgency (glum, sober)
Factor G	Character or Super-Ego Strength (conscientiousness, persistent)	Lack of Rigid Internal Standards (casual, undependable)
Factor H	Parmia (adventurous)	Threctia (shy, timid)
Factor I	Premsia (sensitive, effeminate)	Harria (tough, realistic)
Factor L	Protension (suspecting, jealous)	Relaxed Security (accepting, adaptable)

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[13] *Ibid*., pp. 394-395.

	High Score	Low Score
Factor M	Autia (Bohemian, introverted)	Praxernia (practical)
Factor N	Shrewdness (sophisticated, polished)	Naivete (simple, unpretentious)
Factor O	Guilt Proneness (timid, insecure)	Confident Adequacy (confident, secure)
Factor Q_1	Radicalism	Conservatism
Factor Q_2	Self-Sufficiency (resourceful)	Group Dependency (sociably group dependent)
Factor Q_3	High Self-Sentiment Formation (controlled,exacting will power)	Poor Self-Sentiment Formation (uncontrolled, lax)
Factor Q_4	High Ergic Tension (tense)	Low Ergic Tension (composed)

Standardized profile scores have been established for each one of these factors for elementary and junior high school teachers. These are given in Table 7 for both the general adult population and the student population.[14] It should be noted that for every factor except G, L, N, O, and Q_2, the score is higher for the adult than for the student population. The researcher has interpreted the meaning of these scores in the table in terms of personality characteristics with average profile score given approximately between five and six, estimating for both populations.

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[14] Raymond B. Cattell and Herbert W. Eber, Handbook for the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, 1957 edition (Champaign, Ill.: The Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1962), p. 28. These profile scores are based upon 59 cases.

TABLE 7

STANDARDIZED PROFILE SCORES FOR 16 PAT TEST

Factor	Mean for General Adult Population	Mean for Student Population	Teacher Personality Characteristic
A	7.8	6.1	Above average in sociability
B	6.1	5.5	About average intelligence
C	7.1	5.3	Slightly above average in emotional stability
E	5.6	4.2	Average aggression
F	6.2	4.0	About average enthusiasm
G	4.4	5.8	Slightly below average conscientiousness
H	7.1	5.0	Slightly above average in adventurous spirit
I	7.2	6.7	Above average in sensitivity and effeminity
L	4.5	4.9	Slightly below average in suspicion and jealousy
M	5.2	5.0	Average in conventionality
N	5.5	5.5	Average sophistication
O	4.5	5.5	Slightly below average self-confidence
Q_1	4.5	4.4	Inclined to be conservative
Q_2	4.8	5.8	About average self-sufficiency
Q_3	6.2	5.6	About average self-control
Q_4	6.4	5.5	About average excitability

Only on factors A and I, for the student population, does the personality of the teacher have a significant tendency to be above average. Indeed, Cattell has suggested that the two characteristics measured by these factors, sociability and effeminity, are most influential in determining the teacher personality.[15] It is not surprising that these traits should be considered as characteristic of the teacher in light of the fact that the profession continues to be dominated by women.[16] The high mean score for sociability, however, would be more revealing, since the stereotyped personality of the teacher has already been described as being aloof and dignified. It may well be that sociability is a more basic characteristic and aloofness, if it does exist, is merely superficial and readily removed outside of the classroom. It should also be noted that the scores measuring radicalism or conservatism are both low, suggesting the validity of the earlier claim that teachers tend to be conservative.

One is tempted to speculate on the meaning of the differences between the adult and student scores on several factors. For instance, does the fact that there is a significant spread of 2.2 between the adult and student population on factor F indicate that the individual does lack enthusiasm and commitment to education prior to entering the profession as discussed before? Unfortunately, there is inadequate information concerning the meaning of these standard scores for the relevant population and further interpretation would hardly be justified.

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[15] IPAT Information Bulletin No. 9 (1963).

[16] Since these means are for teachers in elementary and junior high teaching, where the percentage of women to men is most pronounced, this finding is even more readily explained.

C. Earlier Findings Based on the 16 PF Test

Before proceeding with our own comparison of a student population with this profile, it would be well to consider the work of others who have used the 16 PF Test for similar purposes. There are four of these studies referred to in the literature.

In a study of thirty-two subjects who had graduated from a four year teacher training program at the University of Wisconsin and who were in their first year of high school teaching in 1950, Lamke did not find any conclusive trends.[17] Lamke believed that a certain "balance" of personality provided for good teaching while another "balance" produced poor teaching. What these combinations of responses might be were not stated. He suggests the limitation of the 16 PF Test for his purposes when he states "that certain elements of some response patterns have not been identified. A given subject could not be categorized as a good or poor teacher on the basis of his responses to the 16 PF test [sic] relative to the information so far available."[18] He does state, however, "that both the 16 PF test [sic] and the factor analytic technique employed are sufficiently promising to be worth further investigation."[19]

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[17] T. A. Lamke, "Personality and Teaching Success," Journal of Experimental Education, XX (December, 1951), pp. 217-259.

[18] Ibid., p. 247.

[19] Ibid., p. 254.

In another study done by Erickson, sixty-four teachers who graduated from the University of Wisconsin in 1951 and who were in their second year of teaching in Wisconsin high schools were used.[20] This author did feel that there was a slight correlation of estimates of teaching success with the superego, conventionality, and self-concept characteristics measured by the 16 PF Test. Nevertheless, he concluded that these correlations, as well as others, were so low as "to indicate that the relationship of these measures to teaching success as here measured has not been definitely established."[21]

Using a sample of thirty-five subjects, all of whom had four years of teacher training at the University of Wisconsin and at least one year of teaching in Wisconsin secondary schools, Montross arrived at a similar evaluation.[22] It was his conclusion "that identification of these temperamental patterns [distinguishing between good and poor teachers] can best be accomplished through the use of objective measures . . . the Cattell 16 PF Test seemingly fail[s] to identify aspects of temperamental behavior which are related to success in teaching as measured in this investigation."[23] Thus, recognizing the existence of personality differences between good and poor teachers, he feels that the 16 PF Test is less adequate for discriminating among these than standardized objective tests measuring dexterity, tempo of reading and writing etc.

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[20] Harley E. Erickson, "A Factorial Study of Teaching Ability," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIII (September, 1954), pp. 1-39.

[21] Ibid., p. 36.

[22] Harold W. Montross, "Temperament and Teaching Success," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIII (September, 1954), pp. 73-97.

[23] Ibid., p. 96.

Somewhat different results were obtained by Hadley.[24] Using the Class of 1953 at Indiana State Teachers College, Hadley concluded that personality measures are better predictors of student teaching success than usual scholastic aptitude tests.[25] In particular, three of the factors were found to provide a significant discrimination between A and C students. Thus, greater teaching success was found to be correlated with the characteristic of sobriety at the 1 per cent level of confidence.[26] It was also found that teaching success was correlated with the characteristic of emotional stability at the 1 per cent level of confidence.[27] The characteristic of naivete was also found to be correlated with teaching success but only at the 5 per cent level of confidence.[28]

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[24] S. Trevor Hadley, "A Study of the Predictive Value of Several Variables of Student Teaching Success as Measured by Student Teaching Marks," Teachers College Bulletin, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania, LX (1954), pp. 3-10.

[25] No information is provided as to the size of this class. These tests were given on the freshman and sophomore level. p. 10.

[26] Op. cit., p. i. See, also, Cattell and Eber, op. cit., p. 39.

[27] Ibid., pp. 8-9.

[28] Ibid., p. 9. In his summary of Hadley's work, Cattell also states that teaching success was found to be correlated with positive Factor Q_3 (higher Self-Sentiment Development) and with negative Factor C (lower Ego Strength). The researcher, however, did not find these results to be clearly apparent in Hadley's work.

Of these four studies, probably the last is most relevant for our purposes. Not only does it carry the weight of having been referred to in Cattell's studies, but it deals more directly with the question of student teaching. Further, the other three studies leave much to be desired in size of sample and sampling technique. Nevertheless, the results of Hadley's study, while supportive of the value of the 16 PF Test, are not consistent with the teacher profile referred to earlier. Nor would these findings be readily supported by the theoretical perspectives referred to earlier.[29]

D. Description of 16 PF Test Results for Sample

The distribution of scores on the 16 PF Test with the corresponding means for both colleges are provided in Tables 8 and 9. The means for both colleges are included in Table 10 with the Mean on Student Population which appears to be more appropriate as a basis for comparison in our study than the Mean for General Adult Population. Nevertheless, we should be reminded that the student means are usually much lower than the adult means.

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[29] Another commentary on these four studies appears in Getzels and Jackson, Handbook of Research on Teaching, op. cit., pp. 550-554. These reviewers state that Erickson also finds a slight correlation of teaching success with a positive Factor G and also Lamke finds a negative Factor N. Both of these findings would be supportive of Hadley's work. They also state, however, that Lamke found a positive Factor F to be correlated with good teaching, which would be contradictory of Hadley's results. In addition, they claim that Erickson also finds a positive Factor Q_3 to be correlated with good teaching. This was also attributed by Cattell to Hadley's work in the aforementioned reference.

TABLE 8

DISTRIBUTION AND MEANS OF PERSONALITY SCORES
WESTMINSTER STUDENTS

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Mean
A	-	3	4	6	27	12	13	11	12	5	6.3
B	1	2	-	8	11	11	15	18	19	8	7.0
C	-	1	5	13	18	23	14	10	7	2	6.0
E	1	1	6	10	16	23	16	10	5	5	6.0
F	1	1	4	9	21	18	16	12	2	9	6.0
G	-	2	9	16	11	10	18	21	5	1	6.0
H	1	4	12	8	19	16	17	8	7	1	5.6
I	4	-	9	22	23	13	6	9	6	1	5.3
L	-	7	13	9	25	17	8	8	3	3	5.3
M	1	6	7	17	20	14	14	7	4	3	5.4
N	4	1	8	11	21	23	16	4	4	1	5.4
O	2	1	9	11	16	30	16	5	3	-	5.5
Q_1	-	1	3	13	15	11	35	8	6	1	6.2
Q_2	1	1	6	2	24	21	21	12	4	1	6.0
Q_3	-	1	5	23	20	17	13	4	7	3	5.7
Q_4	1	1	10	14	26	16	17	4	2	2	5.4

It has already been stated that sociability and effeminity are considered to be characteristics of the teacher. From Table 10, it can be seen that the Westminster student appears to be somewhat warmer and more sociable than the average student

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION AND MEANS OF PERSONALITY SCORES GENEVA STUDENTS

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Mean
A	-	2	2	6	19	9	10	1	4	1	5.7
B	-	2	-	6	12	9	12	5	2	6	6.3
C	2	3	4	8	15	11	3	4	-	1	4.7
E	2	5	8	10	10	11	3	4	-	1	4.7
F	-	3	5	10	11	13	7	2	2	1	5.3
G	-	1	2	8	9	8	12	11	1	2	6.2
H	-	2	5	9	16	9	8	5	-	-	5.3
I	-	1	3	1	19	8	7	6	6	3	6.3
L	-	3	7	4	11	19	2	5	2	1	5.4
M	-	3	3	8	17	11	5	3	3	1	5.4
N	2	-	8	10	16	5	9	4	-	-	5.0
O	1	-	2	5	10	19	7	8	1	1	6.0
Q_1	-	1	3	17	6	7	14	4	2	-	5.5
Q_2	-	2	9	4	9	11	12	5	1	1	5.6
Q_3	-	2	5	9	7	13	11	3	2	2	5.7
Q_4	-	-	4	4	14	13	12	3	2	2	6.0

suggesting a more positive teacher personality, while the Geneva student rates below the average student. In the matter of effeminity, however, which Cattell also considers to be particularly sensitive for discriminating academic success, the students of both colleges rank below the average. Of particular interest is the fact that Westminster students, who are largely women, score significantly lower than the Geneva or average student bodies on this characteristic, suggesting that they are more tough and realistic in their views than the other students and less likely to be successful in teaching. Apparently, effeminity is not clearly determined by sex.

TABLE 10

COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR WESTMINSTER AND GENEVA STUDENTS
WITH THE MEAN FOR STUDENT POPULATION

Factor	Mean for Student Population	Mean for Westminster Students	Mean for Geneva Students
A	6.1	6.3	5.7
B	5.5	7.0	6.3
C	5.3	6.0	4.7
E	4.2	6.0	4.7
F	4.0	6.0	5.3
G	5.8	6.0	6.2
H	5.0	5.6	5.3
I	6.7	5.3	6.3
L	4.9	5.3	5.4
M	5.0	5.4	5.4
N	5.5	5.4	5.0
O	5.5	5.5	6.0
Q_1	4.4	6.2	5.5
Q_2	5.8	6.0	5.6
Q_3	5.6	5.7	5.7
Q_4	5.5	5.4	6.0

Several other relevant points of comparison could be made here. First, both Westminster and Geneva students have a higher general intelligence than the average students. The maintenance of a relatively high and consistent score by Westminster students in emotional stability, dominance, enthusiasm and persistence suggests personalities which are quite self-reliant and confident. While the scores of Geneva students are generally higher than the average students, they tend to be lower than the scores of Westminster students and less consistent on these characteristics. This observation is further supported by the Westminster students' relatively high tendency toward radicalism and strong self-sufficiency. Geneva students appear to be less characterized by such personality traits, not only because of lower scores on these factors but also because of their greater tendency toward timidity, suggesting greater insecurity than either Westminster or average students.

Unfortunately, these data cannot be readily compared with Hadley's findings, since he did not provide comparable data. Nevertheless, we can note that both Geneva and Westminster students score high on ego-strength, which Hadley correlates with teaching success, but they also attain average to high scores on enthusiasm which he does not correlate with teaching success.[30] Neither college scores below the average in shrewdness which Hadley correlates with teaching success, though Geneva students are lower than Westminster students on this characteristic.

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[30] This finding on Factor F, however, is inconsistent with the findings of Lamke in n. 29.

Cattell further lists seven characteristics which are deemed to be associated with success at a professional level when high scores are attained. These are emotional stability, dominance, superego strength, shrewdness, radicalism, resourcefulness, and strong self-concept. With the exception of shrewdness, Westminster students score higher than the average student population on these factors. Geneva students also score more highly than the average students on these characteristics except for emotional stability, shrewdness, and resourcefulness.

E. Summary

Certain general conclusions may be drawn from this cursory analysis. First, both Westminster and Geneva students tend to attain higher mean personality scores for teachers on the 16 PF Test than the average student population. This is not surprising in consideration of the more homogeneously structured samples used in this study. Although both Geneva and Westminster students tend to attain a somewhat higher rating than the average student for success on the professional level, Westminster students would appear to be more highly promising in this regard.

The possibility that Westminster and Geneva students will be successful in teaching itself, however, is not as clearly apparent. Certainly there is inconsistency when one compares the scores of Westminster and Geneva students on sociability and effeminity, as suggested by Cattell. Also, the scores of these students are somewhat ambiguous when compared with those which Hadley found to be correlated with teaching success.

To say that students are likely to be successful on the professional level, however, is not to say that they necessarily have the type of professional spirit which we have discussed. Indeed, the apparent discrepancy between success on the professional level and success in teaching could suggest that different personality factors might be at work. Thus, this discussion tells us little concerning what it means to be professional or successful in teaching or how these factors may be related to our samples.

There is one impression concerning these samples which appears to be reinforced by these data and that is the homogeneous, upper middle class composition of the Westminster sample as compared to the Geneva group. While the Westminster student appears to be more self-reliant, independent, and aggressive, the Geneva student is inclined to be more immature, timid, naive, and dependent on the group. These characteristics are particularly apparent from the scores of Geneva students measuring low ego strength, submissiveness, timidity, sentimentality, apprehension, and group dependence.

By themselves, these scores may not be very meaningful. When linked with the social class composition of the groups, however, it would appear that these personality traits of the Westminster student are reflective of the generally accepted patterns of competition which are supported by middle class values. This would be one explanation for the surprising fact that Westminster students, though largely women, are more tough and realistic in their attitudes than even the average student. A more effeminate attitude would be expected here. Further, one could suggest that this training is the result of the homogeneous Protestant, Anglo-Saxon background of the Westminster student. While the diversity of the Geneva student body is not great, it certainly differs significantly from that of Westminster. This is true not only in social class and religion, but also in ethnicity, a fact which is apparent to anyone who knows the Geneva student body.

It is not readily apparent what meaning these data may have for the main objectives of this study. Nevertheless, as was suggested earlier, it is quite possible that these two student bodies have quite different perceptions of the teacher's role and reasons for entering the profession. If this should be the case, the impact of student teaching and personality factors may be more readily apparent. These questions, however, must wait for the further analysis of the main data, beginning in the next chapter.

V. ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

A. Introduction

To this point, our attention has been centered on the theoretical constructs which have been suggested as relevant for this study. These main conceptual categories are professional Spirit, Image, Methods and Skills. These categories were further developed into hypotheses which suggest a possible relationship between these categories and the experimental variable of student teaching. A questionnaire which attempts to assign attitude measurements to these categories through the use of appropriate questions was constructed.

A critical problem was the formation of the proper index to be used. In this case, it meant the determination of those questions which would most clearly measure the relevant attitudes. Thus, what kind of question is asked to determine whether one has an attitude which reflects the category of professional Spirit? The procedure used was to place reliance on the judgments and comments of educators who are recognized as having expertise in the appropriate fields. The questions were based on explicit statements in the literature concerning those aspects of education which were assumed to be included under the relevant categories. If these questions are a correct representation of these attitudes, then each category should measure a particular set of attributes. These attributes describe the attitude held by the student concerning professionality. If this is not found to be the case, however, then it could be concluded that the theorized dimensions are not optimal for a parsimonious description of the actual attitudes.

The problem now centers in the formation of an attribute space which is to be analyzed. Specifically, it is necessary to determine which attributes correlate with others to determine whether they agree with the hypothesized relationship of categories. It was decided to use factor analysis at this point for several reasons. First, there is a high degree of efficiency in factor analysis because of its tendency to replace a large number of indices with a much smaller number of conceptual variables. Such a process of elimination is highly desirable in this study because of the large amount of data which would be generated through the use of many factors. The question, of course, is whether the variables which are found are in agreement with those hypothesized. It is entirely possible that this will not be the case.

Second, factor analysis is more effective as a descriptive technique than as a test of hypotheses. This is particularly important if there should not be agreement of the variables located in the attribute space with those conceptualized in the hypotheses, since it would allow for the development of a new conceptual scheme. Indeed, factor analysis is generally considered to have particular value for the stimulation of new theory. It is quite likely, then that the heuristic value of this study will be potentially greater than the singular testing of hypotheses.

The next methodological consideration must deal with the measurement of possible change in the attitudes of the students as a result of their exposure to the experimental variable of student teaching. Those attitudes measured prior to exposure will be referred to as Wave I attitudes and those measured after exposure will be referred to as Wave II attitudes. The measurement of change will be accomplished by comparing the mean scores derived by factor analysis of the data in Wave I with the mean scores gained in Wave II. The comparison of these scores will provide a test of the four main hypotheses offered in Chapter II. We can now turn to an analysis of these hypotheses.

B. Analysis of Hypotheses

A comparison of the mean scores on both waves for all questions on the questionnaire was made. The results are given in Table 11. These mean scores represent the average scores for each question which measure the attitude of the total population. Comparison of these scores provides an understanding of the change in attitude caused by the experimental variable of student teaching. Since the responses to the questions were arranged so that lower scores reflected a higher degree of professionality, a shift toward a lower score indicates a shift in attitude toward professionality. The amount of change is measured by the mean difference. A minus indicates a shift to a lower score or toward professionality. The higher the mean difference, the greater the amount of change in attitude.

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES FOR ALL QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS, BY HYPOTHESIZED CATEGORIES WAVE I TO WAVE II

Category	Question	Mean Difference	Direction of Change
Spirit	1	.03	Anti-Professionality
	2	-.01	Professionality
	8	-.02	Professionality
	9	.03	Anti-Professionality
	44	.46	Anti-Professionality
	45	.12	Anti-Professionality
	46	.06	Anti-Professionality
	47	-.05	Professionality
	49	.14	Anti-Professionality
	53	-.15	Professionality
	54	.04	Anti-Professionality
	57	.04	Anti-Professionality
	58	.04	Anti-Professionality
	59	.10	Anti-Professionality
	60	-.04	Professionality
	69	.04	Anti-Professionality
Image	3	-.03	Professionality
	4	-.10	Professionality
	5	-.01	Professionality
	6	-.09	Professionality
	7	-.05	Professionality
	10	.02	Anti-Professionality
	11	-.02	Professionality
	12	.12	Anti-Professionality
	43	-.12	Professionality
	48	-.13	Professionality
	50	-.10	Professionality
	51	-.09	Professionality
	52	-.04	Professionality
	55	.06	Anti-Professionality
	56	-.11	Professionality
Method	15	.15	Anti-Professionality
	17	-.06	Professionality
	20	-.27	Professionality
	21	.07	Anti-Professionality
	25	-.04	Professionality
	26	-.19	Professionality
	27	.04	Anti-Professionality
	28	-.06	Professionality
	29	-.06	Professionality
	30	-.16	Professionality
	31	-.02	Professionality
	32	.05	Anti-Professionality

TABLE 11--Continued

Category	Question	Mean Difference	Direction of Change
Method	33	-.05	Professionality
	34	-.12	Professionality
	35	-.01	Professionality
Skill	13	-.04	Professionality
	14	-.02	Professionality
	16	.02	Anti-Professionality
	18	-.07	Professionality
	19	-.06	Professionality
	22	.02	Anti-Professionality
	23	-.12	Professionality
	24	.14	Anti-Professionality
	36	-.04	Professionality
	37	-.13	Professionality
	38	-.04	Professionality
	39	--	No Change
	40	-.01	Professionality
	41	-.13	Professionality
	42	-.05	Professionality

The shift toward anti-professionality on the Spirit category is dramatic. A total of eleven questions shows a trend toward greater anti-professionality after student teaching while only five questions show a trend toward professionality. Clearly, the stated hypothesis that professional education programs do not produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning his spirit of professionalization is not supported. Of more obvious importance, of course, is the reason for this unanticipated result, for the implication is that student teaching has a negative effect on the student in this area.

There is a clear move toward professionality, however, for the Image category. There are twelve questions which show a move toward professionality while only three show a move toward anti-professionality. The stated hypothesis that professional education programs do not produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning his image of professionalization would also have to be rejected. Thus, one obtains the impression that student teaching may have some positive influence on the student, despite the implied negative influence manifest on the last factor.

This impression is further confirmed by the similar trend toward professionality which appears for the Method category. A total of eleven questions move toward professionality while only four move toward anti-professionality. Since it was hypothesized that such a change does take place, we could conclude that professional education programs do produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher in knowledge of methods to be used in his role performance. Indeed, student teaching appears to provide a positive attitude toward the use of teaching methods which are considered to be professional by the profession itself.

Finally, similar results were also found for the Skill category. There are eleven questions which shift toward greater professionality, three move toward anti-professionality, and one shows no change. Since it was hypothesized that professional education programs do not produce a significant change in the attitude of the teacher concerning teaching skills to be used in his role performance, it is apparent that this claim is not supported.

The insistence with which these data appear can be noted in a brief consideration of those questions which change the most, as noted in Table 11. Of the 5 questions on the Spirit category with a value of .10 or more, 4 are anti-professional and only 1 is professional. On the Image category, however, 5 questions with such a value are professional and only 1 is anti-professional. Similarly, the change on the Method category shows 4 professional trends and only 1 is anti-professional. Also, the same trend is apparent on the Skill category where 3 values move toward professionality and only 1 moves toward anti-professionality.

Obviously, the circumstances surrounding student teaching as a professionalizing device are more complex than originally hypothesized. The anti-professional tendency which appears on the Spirit category is not merely a quantitative matter but a qualitative one. The fact that Spirit does not move in the same direction as the other categories suggests that control of the student teacher's attitudes is not singular. Either student teaching produces both professional and anti-professional attitudes in the student, or else the concept of profession, as it has been used so far, is not clearly referred to by the constructed categories.

C. Analysis of Components

Since the variables have not been found to be in complete agreement with those hypothesized, it is now possible to turn to the final methodological consideration of this chapter. The fact that professional spirit varies inversely with student teaching suggests that an underlying factor is being uncovered by the factor analysis. If this should be the case, it is quite likely that another conceptual variable would have to be considered in order to explain the unexpected results. Thus, it is necessary to give attention to those factors which are most important in those components of the factor analysis which provide for the greatest amount of explanation. Further, it would be necessary to consider the relevant questions in order to determine the particular attitudes which they represent. It is presumed that qualitative analysis at this point will suggest the nature of another conceptual variable.

After factor analysis of the data, only the first 2 components had eigen values of 3 or more on each of the 2 waves. On the first wave, of all 74 components, these 2 explained 8.7 per cent of the correlation and 9.2 per cent on the second wave.

Those variables whose scores achieve a minimum of .25 or -.25 will be considered in the analysis of change. These scores represent the degree of professionality on each of the questions relative to each component. Thus, a score of .25 or more represents an anti-professional loading for that question on the component while a score of -.25 or more represents a professional loading. These scores, then, show the relatively high or low degree of professionality which is measured for each one of the principal components by the relevant questions.

Consideration of the components, however, shows that the factors which they measure are not completely consistent with the hypothesized categories. Thus, questions representing different factors were pulled in for each component. For example, as shown by Table 12, principal Component 1 on Wave I had scores of .25 or -.25 or better for the Spirit category (3 questions), Image (1 question), Method (3 questions), and Skill (2 questions), as well as for 8 questions characterizing the respondents. This fact suggests that Component 1 is measuring a quality which is not consistent with that suggested by the hypothesized categories and that this quality cuts across all of the categories as well as certain personal characteristics for which data are not given here.

Thus, analysis of these two components should provide a new understanding of the attitudes of the students which were measured by this questionnaire. Analysis will proceed in a fashion similar to that used to test the hypotheses. The mean scores for those questions with a score of .25 or -.25 or more will be compared for the two waves. The difference between these mean scores will indicate the general trend, thus suggesting the general influence exerted by student teaching.

D. Component 1

There are 9 questions with scores of .25 or -.25 or more on this component. These are shown in Table 12 with their mean differences.

All three of the Spirit questions are concerned with some form of altruism. The response to question 45 suggests that student teachers become increasingly reliant on the use of moral

TABLE 12

COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES FOR RELEVANT QUESTIONS
COMPONENT 1

Question	Wave I	Wave II	Mean Difference	Category	Trend
13	1.39	1.35	-.04	Skill	Professional
32	1.22	1.27	.05	Method	Anti-Professional
33	1.44	1.39	-.05	Method	Professional
35	1.70	1.69	-.01	Method	Professional
41	1.40	1.27	-.13	Skill	Professional
45	1.70	1.82	.12	Spirit	Anti-Professional
47	1.36	1.31	-.05	Spirit	Professional
49	2.23	2.37	.14	Spirit	Anti-Professional
51	1.83	1.74	-.09	Image	Professional

authority. The size of the mean difference (.12), and the fact that both means are much closer to moral rather than to the intellectual end of the continuum, suggests that there is a significant rejection of the intellectual authority. The implication of the response to question 47 is that teachers and ministers are both service oriented. While the implication of altruism is clear here, the diffuseness of the teacher's role should also be noted; the teacher is comparable to the minister. Thus, there is a rejection of the traditional view of the uniqueness of the teacher's role and a recognition of its moral diffuseness. Question 49 measures the altruistic desire of the student to teach in a slum school. While there is a strong move away from such commitment (.14), it is important to note that the student would still be willing to spend close to ten years in such schools. Apparently, on this question, as on the previous two, there is an acceptance of the altruistic nature of the teacher's role, but a rejection of the traditional conception of its complete altruism and service orientation.

There is only one Image question which is relevant here. Significantly, it is the only question which appears on both components. The rejection of strikes as a means of gaining a salary increase is consistent with professional values. Yet, it should be noted that the level of response is closer to the more tolerant claim that strikes are not advisable rather than not acceptable.

Since the first two Method questions deal with the problem of teaching rapid and slow learners, they should probably be analyzed together. Both questions remain close to the professional end of the scale, suggesting that rapid and slow learners should be treated in a similar fashion. Apparently, the teacher's role is sufficiently diffuse so that one need not discriminate between such students. Yet, in both questions there is an apparent shift in attitudes towards methods themselves. Possibly the view that current events may be of equal meaning for all students is very traditional. This claim is questioned somewhat by students after student teaching. There is an increasing willingness, however, to accept the honesty and accuracy of both types of learners. Thus, the student teacher appears to reject traditional views of the intellectual capacity of both types of learners but is more willing to accept their moral integrity. The last Method question is less relevant here. Nevertheless, the student's slight inclination to question the teacher's use of daily assignments, in preference for long-range forms, suggests another form of rejection of the traditional, in preference for more current views.

Both Skill questions manifest a trend toward increased professionality. The response to question 13 suggests an increasing skepticism toward the teacher's authority; it is more important to "get something out of him" than to "put something into him." The same view is more clearly manifest in the response to question 41. Here the shift is more emphatic (-.13) and suggests a clear questioning of the teacher's traditional authority; it is desirable for the teacher to state "I'm not certain about that."

Summarizing the analysis of this component, it becomes clear that the teacher's role is seen as altruistic, diffuse and non-authoritarian. The weighting of the particular questions which appear on this component lend strong support for this claim. Analysis of the shifts, however, suggests a rejection of traditional views with a tendency to accept more contemporary views. Thus, it could be suggested that this component describes a liberal element in the teacher's role which shifts from a traditional to a contemporary emphasis as the result of student teaching. The fact that the values reflected by these attitudes are not always consistent with the hypothesized values of professionalism suggests the existence of a degree of tension and inconsistency within the value system.

E. Component 2

There are 10 questions with scores of .25 or -.25 or more on this component. These are shown on Table 13 with their mean differences.

TABLE 13

COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES FOR RELEVANT QUESTIONS
COMPONENT 2

Question	Wave I	Wave II	Mean Difference	Category	Trend
1	1.89	1.92	.03	Spirit	Anti-Professional
5	1.77	1.76	-.01	Image	Professional
7	1.65	1.60	-.05	Image	Professional
10	1.65	1.67	.02	Image	Anti-Professional
31	1.25	1.23	-.02	Method	Professional
44	1.22	1.68	.46	Spirit	Anti-Professional
46	2.76	2.82	.06	Spirit	Anti-Professional
51	1.83	1.74	-.09	Image	Professional
58	1.85	1.89	.04	Spirit	Anti-Professional
59	4.62	4.72	.10	Spirit	Anti-Professional

The dominant thrust of this component is the anti-professional tendency of all five Spirit questions. The most radical change on the mean of any question on the questionnaire is that shown on question 44 (.46). This anti-professional shift manifests a clear loss of autonomy and idealism; local authority is preferred to national ideals after student teaching. This same trend toward identification with the local community is found in the response to question 1. After student teaching, the student prefers to teach in a public instead of a private school. While the change in attitude is slight, the teaching experience does increase the high orientation toward the relative security of the local public school in preference to the greater professional autonomy of the private school.

This same loss of idealism, apparent in question 44, is also manifest in the responses to questions 58 and 59. After student teaching, the student is more inclined to recognize a possible need to hold a second job while also increasing his doubts that the teacher is unselfishly devoted. Apparently, the student acquires a more pragmatic and less idealistic view of the teacher's role as the result of student teaching. The anti-professional trend on question 46 is also important here for it suggests that the student teacher has less confidence that a student's identification with the teacher will encourage a student to become a teacher.

This question of identification appears to be critical for the analysis of this component and is particularly important for the interpretation of the Image questions. Both questions 5 and 7 suggest that there is a stronger identification with education after student teaching. Not only does the student intend to specialize in some field of education, but he also feels more attached to fellow education majors. Nevertheless, the implication of the anti-professional trend of question 10 is that this identification is more pragmatic than idealistic. Since the student teacher views the teacher as one who teaches well rather than one who is ethical and responsible, it could be assumed that student teaching provides an emphasis on the efficient, rather than the ethical, nature of the teacher's role.

Only on Image question 51 could the response be interpreted as a more clear indication of a sustained idealism. As on the first component, there is a rejection of strikes as an acceptable device to gain a salary increase. This is a pivotal question, for it implies that the student rejects strikes as part of his identification with the teacher's role as well as part of his acceptance of his contemporary liberalism. Thus, it appears that there is a possible merger of role identification with liberal idealism.

Only question 31 represents the Method category on this component. The implication here is that the learning ability of the class must be considered before using audio-visual aids. Thus, the teacher must be pragmatic in the performance of his role relative to the use of such teaching devices. No questions representing the Skill category appear on this component.

From this analysis, it could be suggested that the student teacher does identify with his role as the result of the student teaching process. This identification, however, is not with broad, national and ethical principles, but with local elements which provide security. This interpretation is strongly supported by the exaggerated shift on question 44. There is a clear disenchantment with national ideals and a greater reliance on local authority.

Thus, the student clearly becomes less idealistic and more pragmatic as a result of his student teaching experience. He becomes increasingly aware of the utility of peer relationships and occupational specialization. Yet he is willing to weaken his professional image by seeking the economic security of a second job. While the student gains a new and more realistic image of the teacher's role, he desires to identify with it, presumably in rejection of the earlier, more idealistic image. This component appears to measure this role identification, while demonstrating that the shift is from idealistic identification to pragmatic identification.

F. Summary

Of the four hypotheses originally forwarded, only one appears to receive any support from the data. Student teaching does have more influence on the student than hypothesized. Yet, while his attitudes toward the professional image, methods, and skill of the teacher become more positive, his attitude toward the professional spirit is negatively influenced.

Analysis of the first two components suggests two possible reasons for these influences. First, the influence exerted by student teaching is real and of sufficient impact to change the attitudes of the student who identifies with the immediate circumstances of his job. This is not to say, however, that he identifies with the broader meaning of his profession. Indeed, some of the evidence could suggest that the student teacher is passive to, if not skeptical of, this meaning. Certainly the loss of idealism indicated by Component 2 would include a loss of professional idealism.

What does provide meaning for the student, however, is the practice of teaching. Apparently, the student feels that he "belongs," if not to the profession, at least to the school in which his experience occurs. Quite likely, it is this sense of meaning and belongingness which produces the professionalizing trend in the Image, Method, and Skill categories. The identification, then, tends to be more clearly with the practice of teaching than with the profession of teaching. Indeed, the strong anti-professional trend on this component suggests the likelihood that the values of the profession are largely rejected.

This possibility implies another reason why the experience of student teaching was more influential than hypothesized. The original assumption, which gave rise to the hypotheses, was that there was one system of professional values which was influential upon the teacher. Nevertheless, the arguments developed in Chapter I allow for the possible fragmentation of this system as the result of social change. It is entirely possible, then, that the questionnaire reflects a system of values which is not entirely consistent within itself. Disenchantment of the student is probably largely the result of the influence exerted by this inconsistent system upon the student.

At this point, it appears that the loss of idealism, experienced by the student, is characterized by Component 2. Here, the emphasis is on traditional service orientation and authority, particularly as they can be employed in the immediate job circumstances. These are the professional values of education which have traditionally functioned to provide the teacher with a basis for adjustment to the specific role responsibilities found in the immediate circumstances of teaching.

Apparently, Component 1 manifests those values in the system which are not consistent with those in Component 2. Not only did analysis of the first component suggest that there was a rejection of the traditional service orientation and authority referred to, but that there was also a strong manifestation of liberal tendencies. These were most clearly represented by altruism and diffuseness of role responsibility. The fact that there was a closer identification of the minister with the teacher not only suggests that the traditional authority and service orientation of the teacher's role is questioned, but also that the teacher is considered to be comparable to other professionals who have broad altruistic intentions.

It is quite likely, then, that the values referred to in Component 1 represent the values of professionalism in general. Manifesting a more contemporary world view, these values have broad applicability for all professions and come into tension with those values of education with which they are inconsistent. These values of professionalism have a more recent origin, quite likely, because they meet the more immediate social needs of the society rather than the traditional occupational needs of the educational institution.

This is not to say that these two segments of the system are inconsistent at every point. Indeed, question 51 is critical here because it is common to both components. The implication is that teachers, as well as all professionals, reject strikes as an acceptable means to be used in gaining a salary increase. While this attitude of the teachers has been severely strained, the traditional nature of this view for both groups is unquestioned.

Synthesizing the meaning of these components, it appears that the teacher identifies with the practitioner's role because of his desire to gain a more professional image. Thus, the teacher's image of himself becomes more professional as a result of student teaching, but it is an image more characteristic of the values of education itself than the values of professionalism in general.

Nevertheless, the dissonance created by these two segments of the value system creates a dilemma for the student. The problem of resolving the conflict between these values and the expectations with which the student entered teaching is significant. It would appear that one solution would be the development of a pragmatic view toward teaching. The evidence for this claim has already been briefly presented here. Another solution to the dilemma would be to drop out of teaching. While support for this contention cannot be presented here, there are data in the study which could provide such substantiation and which will be presented in a subsequent chapter.

One could not claim that student teaching is performing its function adequately as long as students react in the manner referred to. While student teaching may help the student to become a better practitioner, it does not necessarily cause him to become more of a professional. For this reason, education should probably view the existence of the bifurcated value system with prime concern and attempt to provide for its synthesis. While it is not possible to deal fully with this problem in this study, it is appropriate than an attempt be made to trace the personal and social origins of this value system.

VI. ANALYSIS OF BACKGROUND DATA

A. Introduction

One of the objectives of this study has been to analyze the influence of internal and external forces on the development of professionalization. The argument for consideration of the "call" as the internal force has been presented. The external force has been reduced to the influence wrought by teacher education, particularly on Image and Method. In Chapter II, the "call" was considered as a blend of both personality and cultural factors in the environment which had a particular influence on Spirit and Skill. Since the influence of personality will be considered in the next chapter, it is now time to turn to an analysis of cultural factors which might have had an influence on the student prior to student teaching, particularly in terms of the development of the Spirit category.

One of the earlier contentions of this study was the claim that the personal and social characteristics of the teacher had their sources in the learned and unlearned background of the person. In particular, the claim made by Ryans that these were rooted in youth activities was cited. The possibility that these characteristics could be based on more current characteristics such as college grades or age was also noted. It should be repeated, however, that these characteristics were not clearly linked with professional values. Thus, it remains necessary to consider the possible support which might be given by these elements of internal control to such values.

Before turning to the data which are available concerning this question, however, the road may best be prepared by a brief consideration of some persons who manifested strong internal control. Comments, culled from the questionnaires, may be referred to for some students who clearly reflect such control.

A Westminster woman student, whose father was a junior high school mathematics teacher, presented one of the most succinct definitions of a calling. Referring to her belief that teachers should be personally committed to their work, she described this commitment as an "inner pressure to serve." Yet, she was apparently proceeding under no delusions for, in the second wave responses, she inserted her opinion that this was what the attitude of teachers *should be*. In actuality, she noted that "too many teachers [whom she observed] were selfishly motivated rather than selflessly motivated."

This sense of a discrepancy between what teachers should represent and, in fact, did represent was often noted in the commentaries. In particular, it suggests that the student teacher experience did not corroborate earlier impressions which were held. In the case just referred to, it is quite likely that this discrepancy was not as great as it might have been because of the early realistic view of the teacher's role which might have been molded by the father.

Another Westminster woman student more clearly represents the nature of this change in view. She manifested a high degree of altruism by indicating on the first wave responses that she went into teaching because she wanted "to teach in the slums." Similarly, she referred to "personal commitment" as feeling "an individual compulsion to teach and teach well." Thus, she manifests a calling in a strong sense of internal control. Further, she states that both ministers and teachers are professionals because "they are generally devoted to the helping of others."

Her responses on the second wave, however, indicate a significant breakdown of this internal control without an apparent development of external control. While still desiring to be of service to others, she omits any reference to teaching in the slums. Her definition of "personal commitment" now claims that the teacher derives "personal satisfaction, enjoyment from teaching"; personal reward has replaced an influential altruism. Finally, she claims that the teacher should be motivated to serve others, but isn't; "teaching is not generally looked upon as a service like the ministry."

One final example here would be the Geneva woman student whose father was a minister. Her statement that she has "always liked school and respected teaching" strengthens the impression of an internal control based on traditional values. Nevertheless, in the first wave she agrees that ministers and teachers are professionals because you "help if you teach," while in the second wave she modifies this statement and claims that "if you can teach it's a way of living."

Apparently, these three students manifest an ambiguous relationship between the elements of internal and external control.

They enter teaching with a sense of altruism and complete student teaching with skepticism. During this training period, the values which had motivated them had been removed. The problem now is to locate the source of these values. Further, it must be determined whether these personal values are consistent with professional values or not, for if the former should hold true, there would be the possibility that the external professional control mechanism not only lacks adequate support for professional values but might even be in contradiction to them.

B. Analysis of Data

Brief reference was made to the face sheet data used in this study. These are presented in Appendix B and represent several important dimensions of the personal and cultural forces influencing the students. A statistical measurement of correlation of every question with every other question was available from a correlation matrix of all data. This matrix was used for analysis of these data.

For the purpose of maintaining consistency, it was decided to analyze all correlations which had a value of .25 or -.25 or more. Since correlations of face sheet questions with other face sheet questions were considered to lack importance, however, it was decided to omit these questions. Several other correlations were omitted because they were not interpretable, largely because of the complex nature of the question. Thus, on Wave I, question 35, concerning the use of homework assignments, was correlated with grade point average (.279) and religion (.303) but these questions were rejected for the stated reason.

Several other correlations appeared logical but were not considered further because they appeared to lack significance for the study. Thus, on Wave II, grade point average was correlated with question 36 (.296), which deals with attitude toward types of mistakes. The logical meaning here would be that persons with a relatively low grade point average see little difference among errors. Also, the extent to which students liked their teachers was correlated with attitudes toward teaching machines, as expressed in question 27 (-.262). The apparent interpretation of this correlation is that liking many teachers provides the belief that programmed learning and teaching machines may be used in only certain subjects. The correlation of church attendance with a positive attitude toward happiness, question 60 (.371), tends to suggest a possible religious support of the altruistic dimension of Spirit. Since the question is not clearly reflective of professional values, however, it is not considered further.

There remain fourteen correlations to be analyzed. These are summarized in Table 14.

Before continuing with the analysis, by characteristic, several observations may be made in passing. First, the categories with which there is the most correlation with background characteristics are Skill and Image. Of the fourteen questions, six correlate with Skill, six correlate with Image, and only one each correlates with Method and Spirit. Also, it should be noted that nine of these correlations are loaded toward professionality and five toward anti-professionality.

TABLE 14

CORRELATION OF BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS WITH CATEGORIES OF PROFESSIONALIZATION

Wave I

Characteristic	Question	Category	Score
Sex	13	Skill	-.266
	41	Skill	-.291
Teaching Level	5	Image	.337
Education of Father	43	Image	.264

Wave II

Characteristic	Question	Category	Score
Sex	18	Skill	-.262
	39	Skill	-.274
	53	Spirit	-.258
Age	50	Image	.273
Marriage	14	Skill	-.278
	34	Method	-.291
Religion	11	Image	-.257
	18	Skill	.412
Teaching Level	4	Image	-.304
	7	Image	.261

1. Sex

Since there are five questions with which sex is correlated, it would appear that this is the most dominant characteristic of influence. Interpretation of these data should be summarized as follows, with parentheses referring to the relevant question and wave:

(A) Males feel that it is preferable to "get something out of the child," rather than to "put something into him." (I-13)

(B) Males agree that the statement "I'm not certain about that" is desirable. (I-41)

(C) Males claim that a "poor" class consists of hesitant and listless students rather than those which are disorderly and noisy. (II-18)

(D) Males claim that instructions should be explained after asking why the student doesn't understand. (II-39)

(E) Males claim that the teacher should accept no pay for tutoring. (II-53)

Apparently, the attitudes of men are formed by values in our society which are congenial for the development of professional values, for each one of these responses reflects a professional bias. While it is intriguing to speculate on the particular cultural values which might have stimulated the formation of these attitudes, for the male rather than the female, such an exercise would be lacking in profit for our purposes. Suffice it to say, at this point, that there appear to be very strong values in our culture which mold a male into reactions which are consistent with professional values. In particular, these seem to be in the area of skills. One could draw the tentative conclusion, then, that the male learns appropriate behavior for professional life prior to becoming involved with specific training for a profession.

2. Teaching Level

Three questions were found to be significantly correlated with other questions which, curiously, were all concerned with the Image category. These may be summarized as follows:

(A) Persons expecting to teach on higher grade levels do not intend to specialize in education. (I-5)

(B) Persons expecting to teach on the elementary level desire to get more education. (II-4)

(C) People who expect to teach on the secondary level have less contact with other education students. (II-7)

The most interesting fact to be gained from these data is that questions 5 and 7 show an anti-professional bias for teaching on the secondary level, while the professional response appears in question 4 with its concern for the elementary level. Thus, contrary to general opinion, persons who are desirous of teaching on higher levels appear to be less "profesional," at least on these questions, than persons who expect to teach on the elementary level. It is important to note, however, that each one of these questions reflects the Image category. Thus, one gets the impression that people who intend to teach on the secondary level are more inclined to reject the professional image valued by education while such an image is more readily accepted by persons expecting to teach on the elementary level.

What is of further interest is the fact that the level at which one expects to teach is relevant for the external control system of the profession; the person has probably been influenced by the profession in deciding on his teaching level. This conclusion is consistent with the claim mentioned earlier that the Image factor is more susceptible to external control. On the other hand, sex is more basically influenced by the internal control mechanism. Thus, the data on the previous question appear to support the claim that Skill and Spirit will be more highly influenced by the elements of internal control.

3. Education of Father

There is only one question which is relevant here, (I-43). The apparent interpretation is that the higher the education of the father, the less authority granted to the teacher to paddle a child.

While it has been difficult, on the previous two questions, to offer valid suggestions as to the source of the values which were represented, it appears here that the question reflects patterns of relative authoritarianism. Thus, the father with more education is less authoritarian and more permissive with children.

It is now possible to return to the question of the sex characteristic, previously analyzed, and raise the question of the source of values with greater profit. Clearly, questions 13, 41, and 39 reflect more of a permissive attitude on the part of the male, particularly in the classroom. Thus, these male students appear to reflect the same value system as the father who has a similarly high level of education. Recognizing that this value of permissiveness is consistent with professional values, as noted earlier, the linkage of value systems is apparent; professional values merge with those of higher education.

Further, the fact that it is the Image category which is measured by this question suggests the difficulty of separating Skill and Image; how one handles people conveys meaning to others. It is quite possible that it is in this merger of categories that one finds the roots for the overlapping of values. While one may be tempted to claim that there is one synthesizing variable such as social class or social mobility, it is probably premature to do so at this point.

4. Age

One question is relevant here, (II-50). The interpretation offered is that older students claim that making administrative decisions is not an advisable practice for the teacher. Taking a permissive attitude toward administration, the older student does not take a position which would reflect a strong professional image.

Having noted earlier, however, that permissiveness is professionally valued in the classroom, we note that the acceptable application of the attitude is dependent on the object. Apparently, the profession does value permissiveness in the classroom and trains the individual to employ such an attitude in his practitioner's sub-role. As a professional, however, the teacher would not be encouraged to be permissive in his relations with an administration.

5. Marriage

The insistence with which this value of permissiveness intrudes itself is again apparent in a consideration of the two questions which are relevant for this characteristic. Married people agree that it is preferable to be permissive in matters of classroom behavior (II-14) and on grading procedures (II-34). Once again, a characteristic which is far removed from the influence of professionalizing devices supports professional values as they are to be manifest in the classroom.

6. Religion

There are two questions which are relevant here:

(A) Membership in a Protestant church influences a person to agree that the length of training of a teacher should be lengthened. (II-11)

(B) Membership in a non-Protestant church influences a person to agree that a "poor" class is characterized by disorderliness and noise, rather than hesitant and listless students. (II-18)

The cultural value represented by the first question is not clearly consistent with any which has been referred to heretofore. It does, however, approximate the meaning inherent in question II-4, analyzed under Teaching Level. Here, as well as in that case, there is the development of professionalism on the Image category. Apparently, Protestants who expect to teach on the elementary level are most desirous of extending the length of training.

When one speculates on the source of the value represented by this question, the concept of the Protestant Ethic is dominant; it is good to persist in one's work. Significantly, this same value is implicit in question 18 which has the highest correlation score in this analysis (.412). Thus, non-Protestants are considerably more tolerant of listless students than a disorderly class. The emphasis implied here is consistent with the Protestant Ethic; it is an emphasis on the individual and endeavor which is to be stressed by the Protestant.

This finding appears to be important for several reasons. First, the reciprocal conclusion that males considered a "poor" class to consist of listless students was isolated on this same question analyzed under the sex factor. Thus, the values of the Protestant Ethic would appear to be consistent with some of the values, at least, which are influential on the male in our society. Second, the basic value represented by the Ethic here appears to be complementary to the value of permissiveness which has been stressed so far. Some actions call out permissiveness while others require a response based on the Ethic. While one is tempted to speculate on the meaning of this dichotomy as a possible breakdown of an authoritarianism of the Ethic into a more secularized response of permissiveness, there is insufficient data to warrant such a conclusion. Third, the value system represented by "professionalism" does appear to reflect very complex meaning with possible implicit contradictions. This value system seemingly represents the dominant middle class, Protestant segments of our society. Further, the fact that it has considerable substance in its influence is indicated by the fact that there is consistency in the response to question 18 from two different directions, sex and religion.

C. Summary

From the data analyzed in this chapter, it does appear that significant support is found in society for some values of teacher professionalism. In particular, the male is found to be prepared for the acceptance of professional roles through the development of proper attitudes toward skills. Thus, anticipatory socialization is at work to provide the person with the means for adjustment to society. This process appears to be largely accomplished through the merger of values of professionalism with broader cultural values.

Two of the most significant cultural values which were isolated in this chapter were permissiveness and the Protestant Ethic. If the Ethic is interpreted as a more authoritarian and limiting value, then permissiveness may be seen as a breakdown of the Ethic. Indeed, a logical conclusion to be drawn is that the process of secularization is clearly seen here; the change further results in uncertainty and disorganization. While it is not possible to draw clear lines of distinction, it does appear that values of professionalism are not strongly structured. The traditional values are being altered by new conceptions which have not, apparently, had sufficient time to control the individual.

This conclusion gains more meaning when one considers the ambiguous control exerted upon the individual. While it is apparently desirable to be permissive in the classroom, it is not professional to be permissive relative to administrators. There are two possible explanations for this fact. First, it suggests the clear bifurcation between the practitioner and professional elements of the teacher's role. Quite likely, this increasing complexity of role requirements is a manifestation of the changing power position of education in our society. Second, however, it should be stressed that it was the older student who maintained a greater degree of consistency of permissiveness by not desiring to exert administrative influence. Thus, the older student is apparently more resistant to the bifurcated role requirements and adheres to a more traditional manifestation of permissiveness.

While this ambiguity makes it difficult to establish a clearly defined set of professional values, there is also an apparent dissonance with those values held by education. Consideration of the findings on the influence of teaching level is relevant here. Remembering that persons expecting to teach on the secondary level rejected the educational values of specialization, it should be noted that these are mostly men who, apparently, have been influenced by the broader cultural values of professionalization. Further, the claim made earlier in this study that higher education is a "true" profession while teaching in general is not, further suggests that the desire to teach on a higher level influences the person to come into conflict with some of the more specific values advocated by education.

It would be possible to explain this inconsistency by suggesting that the values of education may be inconsistent with other professions. While this might be true in general, on the two relevant questions (I-5 and II-7), this claim would not appear to hold. Thus, education is consistent with medicine, for example, in advocating that the professional should specialize and have more exclusive interaction with peers.

A further explanation would be to suggest that there is a difference between the values of professionalism and the values of any one profession. Quite likely, the former are controlled by the internal control system afforded by society through its traditional forms while the values of a profession are more specific and maintained by the external control system which the profession uses. One could suggest that the values of professionalism are more meaningful and rewarding to the individual, though not necessarily oriented toward traditional values. Thus, the persons who manifest a non-professional tendency in their orientation to higher levels of education may not be opposed to professional values any longer. Rather, it is quite likely that they are merely rejecting educational values or, at least, the image of those values while adhering to the broader values of professionalism.

VII. ANALYSIS OF PERSONALITY DATA

A. Introduction

Turning to the personality data, the problems raised at the conclusion of the last chapter may be dealt with in a more analytical fashion. Thus, it is hoped that personality types of teachers might be isolated and analyzed in terms of professional values.

The data for this chapter are derived from a correlation matrix of personality factors with the original questionnaire items on the first wave. Using the values of .25 and -.25 once again, it was found that only 13 values were significant. Since the importance of background data was apparent from the findings in Chapter VI, it was decided to leave these items for analysis in the hope that they would provide some direction for classifying personality types.

The relevance of this decision is apparent in the fact that of these thirteen values, only five represented correlations with the original categories of professionalization. The other eight values represented correlations of personality with background items. The immediate impression conveyed by these data is that personality is not significantly correlated with professionalization. Indeed, when one considers the hypothesis suggested in Chapter II which claimed that "there is a stronger correlation of personality factors with Skill and Spirit than with Method and Image," the evidence would suggest that this impression is not substantiated. Of these five correlations with categories of professionalization, personality correlated with two Image questions, two Method questions, and one Skill question. Clearly, the broad contention made by this study that the traits characterized by professional skills and spirit are inherent in personality is not correct.

B. Comparison of Data with Cattell's Conclusions

It would now be appropriate to consider these data relative to the claims made by Cattell concerning the correlation of personality characteristics with professionality and teaching. Before this is done, however, it is necessary to present the data in Table 15.

In his work, Cattell isolated five personality characteristics which he considered to be correlated with success in professional occupations, dominance, lack of inhibition, imagination, shrewdness, and liberalism. He also noted five which are correlated with success in teaching, emotional instability, sobriety, perseverance, sentimentality, and self-discipline. The implication that there are two different personality types is strong here and provides direction for analysis in this chapter. The data from this study only show three of these personality characteristics, emotional stability, imagination, and liberalism, to be correlated with professionality questions (27, 41, 51).

TABLE 15

CORRELATION OF PERSONALITY FACTORS WITH QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Personality Factor	Question	Item	Score
B	5	Image	.261
	63	Grade Point Average	-.346
	71	Likeability of Teachers	-.270
C	27	Method	-.282
E	64	Marital Status	.260
	68	Teaching Level	.253
	76	Education of Father	.253
F	67	Church Attendance	.375
L	29	Method	-.253
M	41	Skill	-.255
	67	Church Attendance	-.256
Q_1	51	Image	.321
Q_2	64	Marital Status	-.278

Personality factor C- is referred to by Cattell as Lower Ego Strength and is correlated with teaching success. Such a person is characterized by Cattell as being "easily upset, emotionally less stable, and affected by feelings." The data of this study show this characteristic to be correlated with professional attitude on the use of teaching machines and programmed learning; they can only be used in certain subjects. The logic of such a claim would suggest that such a person lacks the confidence to experiment with the use of such teaching devices. Thus, the teaching personality probably relies on more traditionally accepted methods while rejecting broad use of more modern devices.

Support for this claim is provided by a consideration of Cattell's suggestion that the M factor, characteristic of the person who is imaginative and Bohemian, is manifested in the professionally oriented person. The data here show that factor M-, referring to the person who is practical, conventional and proper, is correlated with the professional statement, "I'm not certain about that." Here again is the attitude of temerity and lack of confidence referred to above. In the last chapter, it was noted that this question reflected a permissive attitude which was correlated with values of professionalism which were strongly asserted by males. The implications of these data begin to suggest that there is a personality type which is linked with teaching and certain professional values.

Consideration of the final personality factor which is relevant for Cattell's claims provides further illumination for this point. Cattell claims that personality factor Q_1, characteristic of the person who is experimenting, liberal, and free-thinking, is correlated with professional success, in contrast to teaching success. The data of this study show this factor to be correlated with the non-professional attitude which accepts strikes as being an acceptable or advisable practice.

On the surface, this fact would appear to be inconsistent with Cattell's conclusions. The professional person would be expected to be opposed to strikes. Actually, however, such a person might be more concerned with the goals of strikes rather than with the strikes themselves. Education, in particular, has taken a traditionally professional stand against the use of strikes. Nevertheless, the more recent interpretation of this position would suggest that goals such as higher salaries and increased professional autonomy can justify the use of marginal strike measures. In this way, the values of the bifurcated value system begin to merge and the teacher can rationalize the echoing of strong voices from both camps.

While this point could be considered in another context later, it would seem possible to draw some general conclusions about personality characteristics at this point. Apparently, the person who is more submissive and conventional, as characterized by Cattell, characterizes the teacher personality. Further, this person adheres to the values of education. The more aggressive and liberal person, described by Cattell as the one who will be successful in a profession, however, probably adheres more closely to the general values of professionalism which are found in the culture. Consideration of those personality characteristics which are correlated with background characteristics lends even more support to this argument.

Cattell claims that the person who manifests positive characteristics on the E factor is inclined toward professionality. Such a person is described as being assertive, independent and aggressive. The data of this study show that this personality characteristic is correlated with three questions which reflect background characteristics (Table 15). Thus, assertiveness is correlated with being single, wanting to teach college, and a high educational level of the father. All of these attitudes were considered, in the last chapter, to be reflective of the broad values of professionalism in the culture. While sex is not correlated here, the personality characteristics of agressiveness, referred to above, are generally considered to be found more consistently in males. Indeed, the strong linkage of these values with masculinity was also developed in the last chapter.

The other personality factors, referred to by Cattell, which were found to be correlated with background data are F and Q_1. Cattell claims that F-, described as sobriety, prudence, and seriousness in a person, is correlated with teaching. The data of this study show that the positive form of this characteristic, referring to the heedless, happy-go-lucky person, is correlated with infrequent attendance at church. Significantly, the M factor referred to earlier as manifesting professional success, is also found to be correlated with church attendance. Thus, the practical, proper, and conventional person (M-) attends church more frequently. Apparently, this person is also representative of the teacher type of personality rather than the professional type, and the person who is oriented to professional values attends church infrequently. He could also be characterized as having liberal, aggressive personality traits and as being interested in success in a world influenced by pecuniary values. While he may or may not approve of strikes, he probably is desirous of attaining the rewards provided by strikes.

The person who is inclined to follow the values of education which are a specific form of professional values, however, is characterized by a greater degree of docility and conventionality. Apparently, he disapproves of strikes because of the influence of education and because he is less oriented toward the rewards offered by strikes. Whether or not religious influence on him is strong, he attends church more frequently.

A final consideration of Cattell's claims would suggest that they are not completely reliable. As mentioned earlier, Cattell claims that personality characteristics are correlated with success in a profession or in teaching. Such a claim is probably oversimplified, largely because Cattell's conclusions were based on the assumption that one consistent value system existed for teaching. In fact, this is probably not clearly the case. Teachers manifest both professional and educational values, with one dominating over the other in the individual. For this reason, two ideal types of the professional person in education could be isolated.

C. Types of the Professional Person in Education

Some of the characteristics of these types have already been discussed above. They refer to the differences between the person who is oriented toward the values of professionalism and the one who is oriented toward the values of education. In terms of the original dichotomy of non-professional and professional, the former would refer to the values of professionalism and the latter, to the values of education. As was pointed out in the last chapter, the non-professional values, being directed toward higher levels of education are more of a rejection of educational values, which are more reflective of lower levels of education, than of professional values in general.

As was noted in Chapter IV, the Westminster students were described as being younger, more tough and aggressive in their attitudes and were more likely to be single and to teach on a higher level of education. Significantly, they also attended church less frequently than the Geneva student, suggesting that they would also be less conventional. In addition, Westminster students were of a higher social class and had fathers with high professional and educational status. The analysis of Westminster students in Chapter IV also noted a greater degree of confidence, radicalism, and self-sufficiency. Since all of these characteristics have been shown to be linked with the holding of values of professionalism, one could, with confidence, assert that the Westminster student is more representative of these values. Further, the argument that personality, personal characteristics and the holding of a set of values are linked, is strengthened.

There are three correlations of personality factor B with questionnaire responses. Referring to the one item of professionality, higher intelligence is seen to be correlated with not specializing in education. On the two items for personal characteristics, however, lower intelligence is correlated with higher grade point average and a tendency to have found many teachers in the past to be likeable. While the first of these last two findings is quite startling, there is an apparent explanation for it.

The observation was made in Chapter VI that persons who do not intend to specialize in education are more inclined to reject the values of education. Further, they are probably more inclined to be men who, traditionally, desire to teach on higher levels of education and who adhere to the broader levels of professionalism in the culture. Indeed, all of these characteristics are representative of the Westminster student who is more intelligent, based on the data in Chapter IV.

Apparently, then, the less intelligent person more clearly adheres to the values of education and achieves a higher grade point average as a result of his conformity. The Geneva student, who is described in Chapter IV as having relatively less intelligence than the Westminster student, probably more clearly fits this type. The fact that the Geneva student is also more oriented toward teaching on the elementary level has also been mentioned. Averaging the grade point averages for students at both schools, one notes that both groups have an almost identical B- average. Since Geneva students do have less intelligence, as measured by personality factor B, it would suggest the validity of the claim that a higher grade point average is correlated with lower intelligence. Further, one could suggest that teaching on the elementary grade level provides a more firm locus for the formation of educational values.

In addition, the personality of the Geneva student was described in Chapter IV as being less representative of radicalism, self-sufficiency, toughness and aggressiveness. It was also implied at that point that the Geneva student would probably be more "successful in teaching." We could now suggest that this means that the student would more clearly reflect the values of education.

Further support for these arguments is gained by a consideration of the last two personality factors which had some correlation with questionnaire items. The fact that factor L correlates with question 29 suggests that the adaptable and trusting person believes that a person must be unique to handle discussion methods of teaching. The correlation of factor Q_2 with question 64 implies that a follower who depends on a group is more likely to be a married person. Both of these facts apparently refer to the person who holds to the values of education; he is less aggressive and individualistic. Therefore, the same temerity in use of teaching machines, referred to earlier, is being manifested here in the use of discussion. Also, the single person has already been described as one who is more likely to adhere to the values of professionalism.

When one considers the cultural sources for these personality types, it is important to note the class background of the two groups of students. It has been noted that the Westminster student is more clearly upper middle class in background. Quite likely, the values of this social class group are highly influential in the formation of the values of professionalism. Representing a more contemporary, liberal view, they provide the student with a realistic and aggressive attitude. Indeed, as was suggested in Chapter IV, the personality traits of the Westminster student are reflective of the patterns of competition accepted by middle class values. We are not speaking only of intelligent males, therefore, but of females as well who have been socialized in the values of professionalism. Reflecting the values of competition, aggression, and liberalism, the sex factor is modified by the social class training of the Westminster student.

The Geneva student, however, is more conventional in values which are representative of a lower class than those of the Westminster student. Lacking comparable confidence and goals, he adheres more clearly to the values of education which direct him into the security of a professional position. One could suggest, however, that since these values often lack a dynamic contemporaneousness, they reflect an insecurity which can be removed only with strong control of the student teacher. As was indicated above, the tendency to be a follower is characteristic of this personality type and admirably fits the expectation. The reward is social mobility, which is usually considered to be one of the main prestige elements afforded by education to the individual. For these reasons, the educational values are effectively expressed in the external control system of student teaching. Nevertheless, the social mobility brings the teacher into a more relevant contact with the values of professionalism, thus reinforcing the dissonance referred to earlier.

D. Summary

The findings of this chapter suggest a continuation of the conclusions which were drawn at the end of the last chapter. Not only is professionalism manifested by a bifurcated value system, but there appears to be a personality type for each set of values. Those persons who reflect the cultural values of professionalism, more clearly representative of the Westminster students who not only have similar characteristics in their social backgrounds, but also are characterized by a particular personality type. This appears to be the type which Cattell concludes will be successful in a professional endeavor. This conclusion was also drawn from the original descriptive materials presented in Chapter IV. Apparently, as was also suggested at that time, the Westminster student's reasons for entering a profession are different from those of the Geneva student. He is probably motivated more by social conscience than by social mobility, though there is no clear evidence to support this point.

Once in contact with education, a person, such as the Westminster student, apparently desires to reject the values of the profession of education more than the Geneva student. Perhaps this could explain the fact that 18 per cent of Westminster students either did not intend to teach, after taking student teaching, or else did intend to teach on the college level. As suggested in Chapter V, dropping out of teaching may provide a ready solution to the problem of the dissonance of conflicting values in education. Significantly, only one Geneva student expressed a desire to teach on the college level and none indicated that he did not intend to teach. It is this latter kind of attitude to which Cattell apparently refers when he describes a person as being successful in education; he is more likely to demonstrate a loyalty to the profession by acting in it. This is not to say that the Geneva student experiences no value dissonance. Rather, it is more likely that he develops a pragmatic view, as suggested in Chapter V. This stronger rejection of the values of education may also help to explain why the Westminster student, relatively speaking, doesn't live up to expectation in the maintenance of a grade point average.

The claim made in the last chapter that the nature of the control system varies with the type of values is also supported here. The Geneva student was described as being more insecure, conventional, proper, and reliant on a group. Thus, an external control system, employed by the profession, would operate to provide a greater degree of security for the person. The Westminster student, however, is apparently not as oriented to the group but is more individualistic. Perhaps the rejection of the values of education is as much a rejection of the element of control as it is a rejection of the values themselves.

Analysis of factor loadings on the first two components suggests a cultural patterning of the personality. On the first component, there are 5 background questions with a score of .25 or -.25 or better and 7 questions with similar scores for the personality factors. On the second component, there are 7 questions with such scores on the background questions and 8 such questions for the personality factors. Thus, as would be expected, personality and cultural factors appear to be highly intercorrelated within each component. In particular, this same pattern may be seen in the influence wrought upon the Geneva student by traditional religious values and the more contemporary middle class values which influenced the Westminster student. The claim, made in Chapter II, that some parts of the teacher's role responsibilities may be innate is given little support here.

Indeed, it is unlikely that the teacher is "born." Equally important, however, is the impression one receives that a teacher cannot be "made." The existence of a bifurcated value system in the professionalizing mechanism and the inconsistent acceptance of it by the student allows this claim to be made with some firmness. It also suggests the importance of attempting to understand the development of this value system and the possible impact it might have upon the individual.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

A. The Problem

A fundamental precept of modern sociology has stressed the need to keep sight of the individual in a cultural and historical context.[1] Studies which treat the person as existing in a social vacuum lack adequate understanding of the scope of the problem. Similarly, efforts to study the large picture without giving adequate attention to the individual are divorced from the reality of the problem. This study has attempted to proceed with a full, though often latent, awareness of this precept.

Obviously, the problems with which we are concerned here extend beyond the levels of teacher role and the process of professionalization. As a human being, the teacher has been molded by social forces which are often beyond his control. Influenced by the cultural values attached to his sex, religion, education, and family background, for example, he seeks an occupation which will provide a fulfillment of the expectations stirred by these values. Similarly, professionalization is a process which is heir to the conflicting values of cultural change. When interpreted by an institution with unique needs at a particular time in the history of a society, this process is metamorphosed to fulfill the functions which have been perceived as critical by the institution.

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[1] The works of Lynd, Mills, and Mannheim, for example, have forcefully asserted this claim.

Clearly, it is necessary to understand the student teacher as a person who is susceptible to the dissonance which may result from the conflict of these forces. Periodically in this study this conflict has been conceptualized as being produced by the differences between the systems of internal and external control. One may further understand this process, in a general way, as the conflict between the principles of rationality and irrationality as developed by Max Weber.[2] The important thing to note now is that the student appears to react in a rather consistent fashion to this dissonance.

B. Reality Shock

Analysis of the data in Chapter V strongly suggests a sense of awareness on the part of the student that the real classroom and school situations are inconsistent with the expectations of the student. The analysis of Components 1 and 2, where the explanatory power is highest, indicated that there is a move away from altruistic attitudes which were held on the first wave responses. The student teacher is no longer clearly supportive of the real or nominal value of the teacher as one who is altruistic. Further, the findings in Component 2 suggest that the reality factor cuts across all of the other trends which appear here. While adjustment to this reality probably varies with personality type, the insistence with which this notion is intruded into the data of these components suggests the relevance of this finding.

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[2] A brief and most useful introduction to these concepts may be found in Weber, From Max Weber: . . ., op. cit., pp. 51-55.

It is only when we turn again to the commentaries on this subject which are offered by the students themselves, however, that the concept of reality shock as manifested in this study, gains more meaning. In one sense, it is measured by a degree of pragmatism which was referred to in the analysis of Component 2. Replying in the positive to the question which asked whether teachers and ministers are professional because they are service oriented, a Westminster female indicated, on the first wave, that "many teachers go into teaching for the joy of it." On the second wave, however, she disagreed with the question and stated that for many, "teaching is an easy field and for a woman you can always fall back on it."

This view is more clearly brought into focus by another Westminster female who also claimed, on the second wave, that a teaching certificate would be good to "fall back on." With an apparent strong religious emphasis, she identifies teaching and the ministry as service oriented professions on the first wave, but claims that "the teacher does not necessarily have Christian ideals" on the second wave. Indeed, the reality shock in this case has broad influence. Claiming that teachers are "personally committed" on the first wave, and identifying herself with that image, she claims, on the second questionnaire, that teachers are "self-seeking"; "most teachers consider their work a 'job' and work each day to earn a living." After student teaching, she stated that she would not be teaching the following year.

A rather common expression of reality shock was manifest in the loss of altruism. In addition to those cases referred to in Chapter VI, one could note the Geneva male who changed from a position stating that teachers are service oriented and are trained by professionals to the claim that teachers "will work to reach their own personal goals." This expression of increased individualism and self-concern stands in basic opposition to altruism and professional concepts. It is an attitude which is conveyed in many and diverse ways on answers to the questionnaire.

There is the further example of the Westminster female who initially agreed that ministers and teachers are service oriented professionals and claimed that "teachers have a desire to create a desire to learn." Subsequently, she disagreed with this statement and expressed the feeling that "teachers are teaching because they enjoy subject, children, and method of gaining monetary reward." In this case, there is the additional note of passivity; the motivation "to create a desire to learn" is gone.

All reality shock, however, is not manifested in negative ways. Some students manifested a greater respect for teachers as a result of their experience. Yet, they apparently realized that they could not identify with them. A Westminster male, for instance, initially disagreed that teachers and ministers are professionals and claimed that teachers "go where the money is offered." On the second wave, he reversed his position. Agreeing that teaching is a profession, he believes that teachers stay in the field, though salaries are low, because it is rewarding to them. Thus, he manifests a sense of respect and sympathy which, apparently, had not existed before. What is important, however, is the fact that the reality has resulted in a lack of identity on his part with the role of the public school teacher. After student teaching he expressed a desire to teach in a private school, instead of a public school, and he no longer planned to do graduate work.

For some students, then, there was a strong tendency for student teaching to significantly alter their original plans for teaching. As has been noted on several occasions, the student no longer desired to teach or altered a commitment to public school education. A further example of this tendency is apparent in a Westminster female whose father was a college teacher. Prior to student teaching, she bemoaned the low esteem in which the nation held its teachers and felt that the teacher could legitimately hold a second job when necessary. Subsequently, however, she stated that "the public school system overworks and underpays teachers and very often defeats all but the most dedicated." Her respect for the public school teacher is strengthened by student teaching. Curiously, while she checked, on both instances, the statement that happiness comes "Through religion and a good moral life," on the second wave, she purposely crosses out the phrase "Through religion." On the second wave, she also inserted the comment that she would take graduate work to "qualify for college teaching."

This last case is important, for it suggests that reality shock can provide a greater sense of and dedication to professional values. In doing so, however, it is not fulfilling the professional objectives of student teaching as a professionalizing device; it may produce a rejection of the values of the profession itself. This apparent discrepancy points up, once again, the ambiguity in the system of professional values which has been referred to before.

This reverse effect of reality shock is of sufficient importance to warrant further examples of the impact that it has on values. A Westminster female claims that she "found [her] student teaching rewarding," and that she hadn't planned to teach till then. Yet, such a change of attitude does not lead to the development of a more firm image of the teacher's professionality. Thus, she claims that for some, teaching is a true profession, but in "others it is very idealistic."

A better example of this reverse trend was apparent in another Westminster female who was married and whose father also was a college teacher. Maintaining a hostile bitterness toward ministers and a pragmatic view of education on both questionnaires, she appears to be mellowed by her teaching experience. For example, she allows for some motivation other than self-seeking on the part of teachers after student teaching. What is most striking, however, is that she claims on the second wave, that the better way to happiness is "Through religion and a good moral life" while originally, she stated that it was possible "Through greater efforts to get ahead financially." Apparently, student teaching can change one's values as well as one's image of the teacher's role. In this case, it may very well have been the development of a respect for values of the profession itself in contrast to the values of professionalism.

One way of explaining this reverse reality shock, then, is to suggest that a system of inconsistent professional values is at work. Most students have internalized those values which are a manifestation of their cultural expectations. Student teaching, for many, tends to produce a sense of dissatisfaction and frustration when it is realized that these values are not clearly operative in public education. For some others, however, student teaching alerts them to the existence of other values and provides respect for them. This seems to have been the case with this last person. Yet, it should be stressed that respect for the values does not mean that the person will necessarily identify with the relevant role image. Thus, we have noted that some of these persons reject identification with the teacher's role. While there is insufficient empirical data to explore this impression further, the theoretical argument for this contention should be forwarded. Certainly, this assertion gains credence when considered in the light of Jacobs' claims, reported in Chapter I, that the college has little influence on the student's value system.

C. Disenchantment and the Problem of Rationalization

Moving from the level of the individual, it is necessary to consider the implications that the changing culture may have for him. It was stated earlier that the dissonance created by the changing culture results in reality shock. When this occurs in persons who are accustomed to a particular value system, a sense of bitterness and resentment may be created. The meaning of this experience for the individual is perhaps best conceptualized by Weber's term, "disenchantment."[3]

Weber suggests that disenchantment may occur whenever there is a tension between religious and intellectual forces.[4] As rational empirical knowledge dominates, the world is seen as a causal mechanism and the meaning of inner orientation is destroyed. Religious motivation becomes irrational as it stands in opposition to the rationality of the empirical view of the world.

As Parsons states, "The magical and religious forces, and the ethical ideas of duty based upon them, have in the past always been among the most important influences on conduct."[5] It is the manifestation of these forces in the "calling" which comprises the major dimension of what has been referred to in this study as the internal control system. The values represented here are largely religious in nature. The rationalization of these values, however, proceeds in different ways. The form of rationalism which appears to be most common here is "the methodical attainment of a definitely given and practical end by means of an increasingly precise calculation of adequate means."[6]

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[3] This concept is critical to Weber's entire system of thought. Used in many ways, Weber asserts his opinion that the individual must face up to his responsibility in a disenchanted world. Ibid., p. 149.

[4] Ibid., pp. 350-351.

[5] Weber, Protestant Ethic . . . , op. cit., p. 27.

A Geneva female well exemplifies this principle. On the first wave, she defines professional orientation as feeling "a sense of pride and fulfillment in teaching" and personally committed as a willingness to "go beyond the call of duty and have high ideals." On the second wave, however, this sense of broad altruistic ends has been replaced by a statement of specific means to ends objectives. Referring to personal commitment, she states that "about one-third of all teachers enjoy helping others learn." Her description of professional orientation now claims that it is behavior which is "ethical, behaving appropriately for position." Significantly, she now claims that teachers are, above all, self-seeking; "seeking respect, prestige, salary (a good image)." (Emphasis supplied.) The rationalization apparent in this case suggests her disenchantment.

This last reference to a "good image" is worthy of particular note here, for it exemplifies Weber's claim that rationalization may reflect a search for the basis of legitimacy.[7] Indeed, in his description of bureaucracy as a form of rationalization, he clearly asserts the means used by education to gain legitimacy.[8] The reason behind "the demand for an introduction of regular curricula and special examinations . . . is, of course, not a suddenly awakened 'thirst for education' but the desire for restricting the supply for these positions and their monopolization by the owners of educational certificates."[9] If one may reasonably assume that student teaching is to be included in these bureaucratic procedures, then a rational function of this process is to monopolize as well as to legitimize. This point is important for the concept of secularization which will be more fully developed below.

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[6] Weber, From Max Weber: . . . , op. cit., p. 293.

[7] Ibid., p. 294.

[8] Ibid., p. 241.

It now becomes apparent that disenchantment, which is a manifestation of reality shock, results from the clash of values located within the bifurcated value system. There are the values of professionalism which have deep religious and ethical roots and which are considered to be irrational by virtue of the internal motivating influence which they provide. Through further rationalization, however, these values become more demonstrable and manipulable by the profession for the purpose of attaining an image of legitimacy. In this sense, they become the values of a particular profession. While a part of the general system of values of professionalism, these values are more instrumental for the purposes of the institution. Apparently, the values of professionalism still hold much meaning for many persons since they have been proliferated into many areas of society. In this process, however, they have acquired new meaning through rationalization. Further secularization may provide stability for the institution but may also produce disorganization in the individual and society. Continued discussion of this problem must now center on this concept of secularization.

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[9] *Ibid.*

D. Secularization of Professional Values

Weber clearly asserts that "all phenomena that originated in religious conceptions succumb" to secularization.[10] The product of this process was the secular association which provided a sense of identification and legitimacy.[11] Membership in these associations was certified in various ways and provided the individual with a number of services.[12] In addition, acceptance of the individual recognized his moral worth and his acceptance by the brethren.[13] Assumedly, professional educational associations are a particular manifestation of these principles.

The rationalization of professional values may result in attempts to bureaucratically legitimate those members who adhere to these values. This argument was referred to above. Thus, the process of secularization forces the establishment of specific values to be recognized by the profession. These are split off from the more inclusive values of professionalism which are also in a state of change. In this sense, the values of the profession are secularized and stand in opposition to broader values of the culture.

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[10] Ibid., p. 307.

[11] Ibid., pp. 307-311.

[12] Significantly, contemporary professional education associations provide inexpensive auto and life insurance and similar discount services.

[13] A cryptic illustration of this principle in education is found in the first basic requirement for a Pennsylvania Provisional Certificate, Appendix A.

The exact nature of the values in the total system cannot be examined at this time. Indeed, further consideration of them would lead us far beyond tbe original scope of this study. What is important to note is that the middle classes formed the foundation for these secular organizations which became "the typical vehicles of social ascent into the circle of the entrepreneurial middle class."[14] Thus, it would appear that the values of professionalism are closely linked with middle class values and the secularized values of a profession provide for the maintenance and improvement of one's middle class position. Indeed, as Weber states, "the middle classes, above all the strata ascending with and out of the middle classes, were the bearers of that specific religious orientation which one must, indeed, beware viewing among them as only opportunistically determined."[15]

These theoretical observations are certified by the earlier comments which suggested that professional values are middle class values and education is a vital means of establishing social mobility. What is of utmost importance to note, however, is that professionalization, as a rationalized and secularized process, is designed to control the individual's behavior in terms of middle class values, as well as legitimate his position and make him acceptable to society and his peers.

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[14] Weber, From Max Weber: . . . , op. cit., p. 308.

[15] Ibid., pp. 308-309.

Such control, however, would appear to depend on a clear understanding of the nature of a profession. Students often confessed ignorance in this area. One Geneva female stated simply, "What is a true profession?" Other students suggested that professionalism is a myth or an ideal. One Westminster female provided a second wave response which suggested that parenthood is also a profession. Such a view certainly provides no support for the effectiveness of educational values as a secularized control system, since, in this case, it provides no distinction between the role of parent and teacher.

If, then, the control exerted by student teaching as an external control system is relatively weak, it seems hardly ✓ likely that it is capable of resolving the ambiguity which exists between the value systems. This ambiguity was clearly noted in the coexistence of permissiveness and the Protestant Ethic in Chapter VI. Indeed, it is quite likely that values of permissiveness represent a rationalization of the values of the Ethic. Nevertheless, they remain, for all practical purposes, unresolved and in a state of uneasy adaptation.

E. Student Teaching as a Mechanism of Secular Professionalization

In the light of the foregoing analysis of the impact of the changing culture on professional values, it is appropriate to consider the influence exerted on the molding of the teacher's role. The development of reality shock and consequent disenchantment has already been referred to. This is the general explanation for those components which moved toward anti-professionality. Secularization, as described by Weber, however, does provide the individual with a sense of acceptance by his peers and membership in the association. In this way, the student teacher probably identifies with the practitioner dimension of the teacher's role, as noted in Chapter V.

Indeed, it was also indicated in that place that Method and Skill move toward professionality as a result of student teaching. This fact may now be explained in terms of the values of education which control the practitioner's share of role responsibilities. Methods and skills are peculiar to the teacher's role and would not be controlled by the general values of professionalism. The fulfillment of the practitioner's role is readily measured and becomes the basis for acceptance of the individual into the association. Once accepted, the member is more readily recognized as a member of the middle class. Thus, the secularization is also a manifestation of class rather than religious motivation.

Implicitly, it becomes apparent that skills are less innate than was assumed at the beginning of this study. Rather than being controlled by personality, they are more readily controlled by other factors. Indeed, as has been noted, personality is largely influenced by cultural factors in the person's background. In addition to the acceptance by future peers, the opportunity to exercise these skills and methods is apparently a major factor in contributing to the strong sense of identification with the teacher's role which the neophyte feels in student teaching.

As a mechanism of secular professionalization, student teaching not only provides for social mobility, identification with and acceptance by peers, certification and the provision of services, but it also must provide for legitimacy in the eyes of the public. This can best be done through the creation of a professional image. In the case of a marginal profession such as education, however, a defensive posture is taken. There is a need to assert the values of professionalism which have meaning for society. Of necessity, however, the values of education must also be asserted, for without them, the legitimacy of the profession is questioned. For this reason, then, student teaching can only present a bifurcated image which is representative of the value system which must be forwarded.

Finally, the secularizing tendency of student teaching is apparent in the fact that student teaching does not clearly provide for a professional spirit. What is to be stressed here is that neither set of values was clearly accepted. The student teacher became more concerned with security, pragmatism, and local benefits. The secularizing influence produces an adjustment to more immediate social requirements as they are perceived in student teaching. These requirements, however, are not completely consistent with either set of values, since they are representative of environmental problems in the contemporary milieu.

There is, therefore, a decided tension between secularizing tendencies which are a manifestation of rationalization and the irrationality of the inner calling[16]

As a mechanism of secular professionalization, then, student teaching does not clearly support the values of professionalism which form a contemporary assertion of the professional spirit. Indeed, the secularizing mechanism does not adequately provide for professional role responsibilities as manifested in spirit and image. Being concerned with its own need for legitimacy, student teaching provides for greater control of the requirements for practitioner as manifested in method and skill.

F. Projections

There is no question that student teaching can have a significant impact on the person. Such an influence, however, tends to produce in the student an identification with the practitioner's sub-role and the values of education rather than the professional sub-role and the values of professionalism. Such a process produces apparent tension within the person resulting in reality shock. Indeed, this strain is not limited to the individual. The profession itself is not able to resolve this strain between the sets of values and finds itself divided in the conception of its image.

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[16] This dichotomy between the two forces is found throughout Weber's work. Note again, for example, _ibid_., pp. 51-55.

It should be stressed, however, that this study originally assumed the existence of one consistent value system. It was on this basis that the theoretical construct of student teaching as a professionalizing mechanism was forwarded and the questionnaire developed. It was further assumed that student teaching, if it were effective as such a mechanism, would relieve the shock of transition into a professional status. As a secularizing mechanism, however, the training period is perceived as more of a "shock producer" than a "shock absorber." The student perceives the erosion of his value system and expectations as he conforms to the more immediate means and goals of the practitioner's role.

In addition, this misconception concerning the true nature of student teaching could be used to explain the inability to verify clearly the original hypotheses. The lack of an adequate "fit" between the theoretical constructs and the empirical data suggests the weakness of the conceptualization of student teaching as it was originally forwarded. Hopefully, this study has provided a clarification of the conceptual problems involved and new meaning has been attached to the teacher's role, professional values and the process of training.

With weak conceptualization, however, there is always the possibility of poor interpretation of the data. In such a situation, one can only trust in the accurate employment of sociological intuition and insight. Having been in the position of a public school teacher for a number of years, thus having the experience to observe the teacher's role in the dynamism of these situations, this researcher has confidence that the majority of these marginal interpretations fall more closely to the category of accuracy than falsity.

Nevertheless, while the original categories of the professional role may lack clarity, the components, if interpreted correctly, provide new directions for study. Also, the study does tend to validate the utility of conceiving of the professional-practitioner duality in the professional role. Perhaps the notions of idealism and reality in the teacher's role lack clear meaning. Still, there does appear to be usefulness in the employment of the dichotomy of an internal or external control system.

Finally, we should ask whether student teaching could ever be a professionalizing device. Probably this goal could not be accomplished with the present existence of the bifurcated value system. A merger of the two sets of values with a dominance of the values of professionalism would probably be required. Even then, the provision for internal control comparable to that found in the calling could probably never be duplicated in such a short period of professionalization.

Nevertheless, one could hope that the reality shock might be minimized. The two variables which appear to be significant here are the school in which training is taken and the length of training. It must be remembered that the colleges used for this study attempt to follow the liberal arts tradition. It may be that the clash in the value system represented by such a college and the public school is productive of the shock. Certainly a study of this problem which could provide for a comparison of different college environments would be fruitful.

It could also be suggested that student teaching is not long enough to prevent reality shock. The general conclusion of students of professionalism is that long training is a characteristic of a profession. It is quite likely that this increased training should be centered in student teaching, so that it would be comparable in length of time to that which is found, for example, in medicine. While it could not be suggested here how long this period might be, there are enough training plans now employed to warrant comparative study.

In conclusion, one can only speculate on the nature of that force which is most influential on the formation of the teacher's role. Apparently, the present system of student teaching is inadequate and personality is influenced by cultural factors. From such a position, one can only agree with the wisdom of Waller's conclusion, "It's not to disparage teacher training that we remark upon the fact that teachers still learn to teach by teaching. The teacher gets something from experience which is not included in his 'professional' courses, an elusive something which it is difficult to put between the covers of a book or to work up into a lecture. That elusive something is social insight."[17]

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[17] Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, op. cit., p. 1.

APPENDIX A

Pennsylvania State Teacher Certification Requirements
Commonwealth of Pennsylvania
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
Harrisburg

Requirements for Teacher Certification in Pennsylvania
Adopted by the State Council of Education on March 4, 1959

The following are minimum requirements and are not in any way intended to keep institutions from expanding their programs as they may desire.

Provisional Certificate
(Effective October 1, 1963)

A. Basic Requirements - Every teacher employed to teach in the public schools of this Commonwealth must 1) be of good moral character (and not in the habit of using opium or other narcotic drugs, or any intoxicating drink or beverage), 2) show physician's certificate that applicant is neither mentally nor physically disqualified from successful performance of the duties of a teacher, 3) be at least 18 years of age, 4) be a citizen of the United States (citizenship may be waived in the case of exchange teachers), and 5) take the loyalty oath. (School laws of Pennsylvania (Article XI - Section 1109). The provisional college certificate is issued to an applicant who has completed an approved teacher education curriculum and has been granted a baccalaureate degree in an accredited college or university.

B. General Education Requirements - Certificates are based on the completion of a minimum of sixty (60) semester hours of acceptable courses in general education with not less than twelve (12) semester hours in the humanities and not less than six (6) semester hours in each of the following areas; the social sciences and the natural sciences. However, the State Council feels that twelve (12) semester hours in both the social and natural sciences would provide a more acceptable program. Courses taken under general education may be used in the respective areas for major field specialization.

C. Professional Education Requirements - Certificates are based on the completion of a minimum of eighteen (18) semester hours of professional education courses distributed in the following areas: social foundations of education, educational psychology and human growth and development, materials and methods of instruction and curriculum, and not less than six (6) of the eighteen (18) semester hours in actual practicum and student teaching experience under approved supervision and appropriate seminars including necessary observation, participation and conferences on teaching problems. The areas of methods and materials of instruction and curriculum, and student teaching shall relate to the subject matter specialization field or fields.

D. Subject Matter Specialization Requirements - The preparing institution shall certify to the Department of Public Instruction that the applicant has completed the specialized preparation outlined below for the field or fields to be written on the certificate.

E. Elementary Education (36 semester hours)

a. The provisional college certificate may be issued to an applicant who has completed thirty-six semester hours in the elementary field distributed as follows:

(1) Eighteen (18) semester hours of basic professional education.
(2) A course in the teaching of reading.
(3) The remainder of the thirty-six semester hours selected from a minimum of four of the following areas: mathematics, arts and crafts, music, physical education, language arts, sciences, social studies, geography, mental hygiene or a course dealing with exceptional children.

b. Regulations Governing the Extension of College Certificates Valid for the Secondary School to Include the Elementary Field

Twenty-four semester hours of approved courses in the field of elementary education are required. The distribution of courses to be completed for this extension should be the same as outlined in section 1a 2 and 1a 3.

c. Regulations Governing the Extension of College Certificates Valid for the Elementary School to Include a Secondary Subject or Secondary Subjects

A range from eighteen to forty semester hours of approved courses in a secondary subject, depending upon the areas of specialization, shall be required to extend an elementary provisional college certificate to include the secondary subject or subjects.

d. Scope of Certificates

1. Elementary certification is for kindergarten through grade six in a six-three-three organization and kindergarten through grade eight in an eight-four organization,

and for all the elementary subjects which may be taught in the secondary school.

2. Certification in secondary subjects will apply to secondary subjects which may be taught in the elementary school.

Certification of Secondary School Teachers in Academic Subjects

Minimum College Semester Hours Required for Certification of Secondary School Teachers of Academic Subjects

An applicant for provisional certification in academic subjects shall have an adequate background of preparation of at least twenty-four semester hours in the specialized subject field, unless otherwise specified.

2. English (36 semester hours)

   a. The provisional college certificate may be issued to an applicant who has completed thirty-six semester hours in English.

   b. Reading will be written on the certificate valid for English when an applicant has completed a minimum of six semester hours in developmental and remedial reading.

3. Foreign Language (24 semester hours)

   a. The provisional college certificate may be issued to an applicant who has completed twenty-four semester hours of a foreign language, including proficiency in the areas of conversation, reading and writing.

   b. The applicant may be certificated on the basis of an examination to be determined by the Department of Public Instruction.

   c. A college certificate to teach foreign language is valid for the teaching of foreign language in all the grades of the public school.

4. Geography and Earth and Space Science (24 semester hours)

5. History (24 semester hours)

6. History and Government (24 semester hours)

7. Mathematics (24 semester hours)

8. Biology (24 semester hours)

9. Chemistry (24 semester hours)

10. Physics (24 semester hours)

11. Physics and Mathematics (36 semester hours)

12. General Science (24 semester hours)

    a. General science may be written on a college certificate on the completion of twenty-four semester hours in any two or all of the sciences.

    b. A college certificate to teach general science is valid for teaching general science in all grades up to and including the ninth grade.

13. Comprehensive Science Certificate (40 semester hours)

    a. The provisional college certificate may be issued to an applicant who has completed a minimum of forty semester hours with not less than eight semester hours in each of the following: biology, chemistry, and physics; and not less than six semester hours in earth sciences (astronomy, geology and meterorology); and not less than three semester hours in mathematics.

14. Earth and Space Science (24 semester hours)

    a. The provisional college certificate may be issued to an applicant who has completed a minimum of twenty-four semester hours including the following areas of study: astronomy, geology, meteorology, physical geography and other related sciences.

15. Social Studies (36 semester hours)

    a. The provisional college certificate may be issued to an applicant who has completed a minimum of thirty-six semester hours distributed in the following areas: history, geography, government, economics, and sociology and/or anthropology.

APPENDIX B

Study Questionnaire - Components and Face Sheet Data

The numbers in parentheses indicate the order in which the question appeared in the questionnaire. The underlined numbers in the responses indicate level of professionality. High professionality is rated by 1 with a lower rating noted by a higher number. The comment following the question is either a quotation or a paraphrase of an authoritative source used for developing the question. The author and page of the reference used follows.

Teacher Professionality - Spirit Scale

1. (1) Would you prefer to teach in a private school or in a public school?

1 Private
2 Public

Private schools provide more professionality since most of the provisions regarding public school teachers are left to the regulations of the appropriate accrediting bodies. Stinnet p. 40

2. (2) How long do you anticipate staying in your first teaching position before moving on to another one?

5 1 year
4 2 years
3 3 - 5 years
2 6 - 10 years
1 More than 10 years
9 Don't know

Desire of a teacher to move would suggest the teacher's role is seen as a means of social mobility rather than social service. Lieberman p. 467

3. (8) (For women only) What is your attitude toward returning to teaching if you should be married and have children?

1 Return as soon as possible
2 Return when children are in school
3 Return only if financially necessary
4 Would not consider returning

The tendency to interrupt a career on the part of women teachers weakens the professional status of teaching. Stinnett p. 38

4. (9) (For men only) What is your attitude toward remaining in teaching if you were offered another position outside of teaching?

1 Probably would not take the position
4 Would not take it if I had tenure
3 Would take it if salary were higher
2 Would probably take it if all benefits were comparable to those in teaching

Teaching is weak as a profession because there is a high turnover of personnel. Huggett and Stinnett p. 17

5. (44) Which of the following sources of authority would you probably use to make a decision while teaching in the classroom?

2 The local community
1 The democratic ideals of the nation
9 Neither

Ultimate authority for a professional view in teaching should rest in national ideals rather than community. Lieberman pp. 80-81

6. (45) Which of the following sources of authority would you probably use to make a decision while teaching in the classroom?

1 Intellectual authority
2 Moral authority
9 Neither

A profession has an intellectual basis which should be the basis for its authority. Lieberman p. 82

7. (46) The following devices have been suggested as useful for encouraging students to enter teaching as a profession. Rank these in terms of the effectiveness which you think they would have, beginning with your first choice as 1.

_ Provide students with semi-teaching experience in assisting teachers with routine duties
_ Provide students with basis for identifying with teacher
_ The student should be referred to guidance office for direction
_ The teacher should reflect enjoyment in teaching

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
No	3	-	-	-	-	1	Other patterns	Other
responses	2	2	-	-	2	2	of responses with	patterns of
	-	-	-	-	-	-	3rd one included	responses
	1	1	1	3	3	3	as 1,2,3.	

Teachers should encourage students to become teachers by demonstrating greater spontaneity and activity rather than passivity. This would involve motivating the student to identify with the teacher's role. Huggett and Stinnett p. 36

8. (47) Would you tend to agree or disagree with the following statement: "Teaching and the ministry are recognized universally as true professions in the sense that their members are motivated basically by their desire to serve others rather than for economic rewards"?

1 Agree 2 Disagree

Would you briefly explain your answer? ________________

The social service nature of both fields would suggest they are equally professional, especially in the consideration that there is an element of both professions having a "calling." Huggett and Stinnett p. 20

9. (49) After teaching in a slum area school with personally satisfying results, when would you ask for a transfer to a suburban school?

6 After 1 year
5 After 2 years
4 After 3 - 4 years
3 After 5 - 10 years
2 After more than 10 years
1 Probably wouldn't ask for a change

A profession should place service above personal gain. Huggett and Stinnett p. 20

10. (53) What is the preferable attitude for the teacher to hold concerning tutoring?

1 He should accept no pay for tutoring members of his class.
2 While he should accept no pay for tutoring members of his class, the teacher may refer such a student to an immediate relative for remunerative tutoring.
3 The teacher should accept pay for tutoring members of his class only with the approval of his principal.
4 The teacher may, with a clear conscience, accept pay for tutoring members of his class.

While policies vary here, the attitude of accepting no pay for tutoring would be most reflective of the provision of a social service. Lieberman p. 449

11. (54) When encouraging youth to become teachers, what is the means you would recommend to increase the quantity and quality of candidates entering the profession? If you

give more than one answer, indicate with 1,2.3, etc. the rank you assign to each response.

_ Stress the social value of education
_ Stress the intellectual stimulation in teaching
_ Increase the federal aid to education
_ Increase teachers' salaries
_ None of these (please explain)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9
No	x	1	-	-	-	-	Other	-
response	x	-	1	-	-	-	patterns	-
	-	-	-	1	-	x	of response	-
	-	-	-	-	1	x		-
	-	-	-	-	-	-		1

A profession is to stress the social service which it performs. Lieberman p. 4

12. (57) With which one of the following statements would you tend to agree?

1 One should teach because one wants to educate youth.
2 One should teach because one wants to teach.
3 One should teach because of the increasing prestige which teachers are afforded.
4 One should teach because of the increased monetary rewards and other benefits which teachers are afforded.
9 None of these (please explain ____________________)

A profession is service oriented and a professional enjoys his work. Huggett and Stinnett p. 20

13. (58) Which of the following statements best reflects your attitude toward the holding of a second job by a teacher during the regular academic year?

9 It is a necessary practice
2 It is an acceptable practice
8 It should be done only when necessary
1 It is an unacceptable practice
7 It is an unnecessary practice

A professional looks upon monlighting as an unacceptable practice. Huggett and Stinnett p. 267

14. (59) Which of the following phrases best describes the attitude of teachers toward their work? If you give more than one response, indicate with 1,2,3 etc. the rank you assign to each response.

_ Unselfishly devoted
_ Personally committed
_ Professionally oriented
_ Self-seeking
_ None of these (please explain ______________________)

In your own words, could you very briefly rephrase the meaning of the statement which you have chosen above; i.e. "Unselfishly devoted" etc.

____

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
No response	1 x x - -	1 2 - - -	1 - - - -	2 x x - -	3 1 2 - -	3 2 1 - -	All patterns of responses with 4th one included as 1,2,3.	Other patterns of responses	None

A profession reflects an unselfish attitude which is most indicative of a professional spirit. Becker p. 31

15. (60) If you were only making enough money to get by from day to day, which do you think would be the better way to happiness?

1 Through religion and a good moral life
2 Through greater efforts to get ahead financially

This question is not based on particular references. Rather, it suggests the level of religious interest of the individual and can be used for verification of other responses.

16. (69) Which of the following factors was most influential in making your decision to be a teacher? If you give more than one answer, indicate with 1,2,3 etc. the rank you assign to each response.

_ It appears to be a good vocation
_ It seemed like a good major in college
_ Friends urged entry into field
_ Parents urged entry into field
_ You enjoy intellectual life
_ You wanted to be of service to others
_ Other (please explain ____________________________)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
No response	x	x	x	x	1	x	x	x	-
	x	x	x	x	x	1	x	x	-
	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	-
	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	x	-
	2	1	x	1	x	x	x	x	-
	1	2	1	x	x	x	x	x	-
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x

Teachers showing more professional characteristics of the role tended to be more intellectual, service oriented and tended to like school. Ryans p. 394

Teacher Professionality - Image Scale

1. (3) Do you plan to take graduate work in education after you begin teaching?

1 Yes 2 No 9 Don't know

The professionally oriented teacher recognized the importance of obtaining a graduate degree and in-service training. Huggett and Stinnett p. 92

2. (4) If the answer to the previous question is "Yes," for what reason would you take this work? If you give more than one answer, indicate with 1,2,3 etc. the rank you assign to each response.

_ Improvement of skills
_ Acquire a master's degree
_ Acquire a doctorate
_ Qualify for a higher salary
_ Anticipate state requirement of such additional training
_ Other (please state ______________________)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9
No response	x	-	-	-	-	-	Other patterns of responses	Other (responses)
	x	x	-	-	-	-		
	x	x	1	-	-	-		
	-	-	-	1	-	x		
	-	-	-	-	1	x		

While the general expectation is that teachers will gain higher education, salary inducements are used as rewards for such work. Gaining such training for the purpose of developing skills recognizes the education as its own reward. Seeking graduate degrees requires a relative degree of increased motivation. Huggett and Stinnett pp. 92-93

3. (5) Do you intend to specialize in some field of education such as remedial reading, audio-visual, curriculum, guidance, etc.?

1 Yes 2 No 9 Don't know

"A teacher needs to be a specialist in something besides subject matter." Huggett and Stinnett p. 95

4. (6) Which of the following professional organizations do you intend to join? If you give more than one answer, indicate with 1,2,3 etc. the rank you assign to each response.

_ National Education Association
_ American Federation of Teachers
_ Special interest branches of NEA such as music, social studies, etc.
_ State professional organization
_ Local professional organization
_ None of these (please explain ____________________)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9
No response	x	x	x	1	-	-	Other patterns of response	None
	-	-	-	-	-	1		
	x	-	-	-	-	-		
	x	x	x	-	-	-		
	x	x	-	-	-	-		
	-	-	-	-	1	-		

While a teacher cannot affiliate with all educational organizations, he should join those beyond the state and local level which meet his particular needs and interests. Huggett and Stinnett pp. 93-94

5. (7) Do you feel a stronger sense of attachment to fellow majors in education than to non-majors in education?

1 Yes 2 No

Professionalism conveys a sense of eliteness among peers. Conant p. 28

6. (10) Would you say that a professional teacher is one who teaches creatively and well or one who is ethical and responsible in the performance of all of his duties?

2 Teaches creatively and well
1 Ethical and responsible in all duties

A profession cannot take ethics and responsibility for granted; it must go beyond performance. Stinnett p. 85

7. (11) Which one of the following statements would you agree with concerning the length of training to be a teacher?

1 It should be lengthened
2 It should be kept at approximately what it is now
3 It should be shortened

A profession should have long training. Lieberman p. 3

8. (12) With which one of the following statements would you agree concerning teaching certification requirements?

1 Too many people are admitted into teaching because there are too many kinds of certificates.
2 Too many people are admitted into teaching even though certification requirements are adequate.
3 Not enough people are admitted into teaching despite the large number of possible certificates.
4 Not enough people are admitted into teaching because of a limited number of possible certificates.

The current proliferation of professional certificates as well as the tendency to include marginally trained persons under these certificates weakens the current professional status of education. Stinnett pp. 45-48

9. (43) With which of the following statements would you agree concerning the teacher's use of "paddling" as a disciplinary measure below junior high level?

1 The teacher should be able to make a decision to paddle and be held responsible.
2 The teacher should be able to make a decision to paddle with the school administration held responsible.
3 The teacher should be able to paddle only with the approval of the administration.
4 The teacher should not paddle, even if it is legal in the state, because adequate judgment would probably not be shown.

Professionals should have autonomy and be responsible for decisions which they should be free to make. Lieberman p. 3

10. (48) While looking for a teaching position, how ethical is it to accept three contracts from different schools before accepting the most desirable one?

3 Ethical   2 Acceptable   1 Unethical

Holding more than one contract at a time is deemed to be an unethical act for a professional. Huggett and Stinnett p. 255

11. (50) Which of the following statements best reflects your attitude toward the policy of teachers helping to make administrative decisions in the school such as preparing the budget or planning school buildings?

1 It is an advisable practice
2 It is an acceptable practice
3 It should be done only when necessary
4 It is not an advisable practice
5 It is not an acceptable practice
9 Other (please explain ______________________________)

The professional teacher helps to make policy in the school. Huggett and Stinnett p. 297

12. (51) Which of the following statements best reflects your attitude toward the use of a strike by teachers to gain a salary increase?

5 It is an advisable practice
4 It is an acceptable practice
3 It should be done only when necessary
2 It is not an advisable practice
1 It is not an acceptable practice
9 Other (please explain ______________________________)

Members of recognized professional groups do not resort to strikes to obtain their demands. Huggett and Stinnett p. 372

13. (52) What action, if any, would you take if you found that a colleague was reporting grades on students' report cards without having any basis for giving such grades?

1 Tell principal about situation
2 Tell other teachers about situation
3 Tell the colleague about the situation
4 Ignore the situation
9 Other (please explain ______________________________)

Members of a profession are responsible for the censure of incompetent members of the profession. Huggett and Stinnett pp. 273-274

14. (55) Who do you feel should have the most influential voice in determining what the standards for certification of teachers should be?

4 The federal government
3 The state
2 The community
1 The National Education Association
9 None of these (please explain____________________)

While a private professional group should have the opportunity to set its own standards, as a public profession, education lacks such autonomy. Huggett and Stinnett p. 19

15. (56) Which of the following descriptions best applies to the teacher's occupation?

1 It is highly skilled, and can be performed only by those with specialized training.
2 It is skilled and can be performed best by those with training.
3 It is relatively unskilled and can be performed with a minimum of training.

The professionalization of teaching is obscured by the fact that the public is not convinced that it is complex and highly skilled and that there is a relatively large number of teachers. Huggett and Stinnett p. 28

Teacher Effectiveness - Methods Scale

1. (15) What is your reaction to the following statement: "Units of study should rarely be borrowed from other teachers"?

1 Completely agree
2 Generally agree
3 Disagree, especially when the teacher is unfamiliar with the subject
4 Disagree completely

Units of study should be creative and personal and not borrowed from others. Inlow pp. 104 and 108

2. (17) With which one of the following statements would you agree most?

2 Method can be applied in somewhat the same way in all subject matter areas
1 Method is determined by the nature of the subject being taught

Empirical evidence demonstrates that method is almost a direct function of the subject matter being taught. Inlow p. 63

3. (20) How would you evaluate the statement: "Planning should start early in the life of a teacher and can never end"?

1 Completely true
2 True for some teachers but not others
3 Exaggerated
4 An educational cliché

"Planning should start early in the life of a teacher and can never end." Inlow p. 71

4. (21) Following are some suggested means for stimulating motivation in a class. Rank them in the order of the most preferable means to be used, beginning with 1

_ Use of competitive devices
_ Use of interests and experiences of pupils
_ Use of problem situations
_ Use of system of rewards and punishments

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
No response	x	-	-	-	1	1	All patterns of responses with bottom one included as 1,2,3	Other patterns of responses
	x	2	-	1	2	x		
	1	1	1	2	1	x		
	-	-	-	-	-	-		

Best teachers use problem situations for stimulating motivation with comparably high motivation gained with the use of interests and experiences of students. Barr p. 50

5. (25) Based on what we know of the use of closed-circuit television in classrooms, would you say that

3 Teachers are able to use it in all subjects with equal effectiveness
1 Teachers are able to use it effectively in teaching only certain subjects
2 Teacher effectiveness in the use of television will be limited due to the nature of the media

While such use of television has definite value in the curriculum, its effectiveness is limited to certain times and subjects in the curriculum. Inlow p. 115

6. (26) Team teaching is best described as utilizing

   1 Flexibility of class size and flexibility of teacher participation
   2 Flexibility of class size and patterned teacher participation
   3 Consistent class size and flexibility of teacher participation

In team teaching, "the size of group determines the kind of teaching which eventuates," so that teaching is flexible in both participation and with class size. Inlow pp. 118-119

7. (27) Based on what we know of the use of teaching machines and programmed learning, would you say that

   3 Such methods may be used in all subjects with equal effectiveness
   1 Such methods may be effectively used only in certain subjects
   2 The effective use of such devices will be limited due to the nature of such mechanical devices

Teaching machines will be useful only in the skills and factual content areas. Inlow p. 125

8. (28) Which of the following statements best reflects your attitude toward lecture methods of teaching?

   2 They may be used with equal effectiveness by all teachers.
   1 A person must be uniquely equipped to use them effectively.
   3 Anyone may learn to be a good lecturer.
   9 None of these (please explain____________________)

"The lecturer himself needs to be a composite of high-quality personal and professional attributes." Inlow p. 136

9. (29) Which of the following statements best reflects your attitude toward discussion methods of teaching?

   2 They may be used with equal effectiveness by all teachers.
   1 A person must be uniquely equipped to use them effectively.
   3 Anyone may learn to be a good discussion leader.
   9 None of these (please explain____________________)

"[The discussion leader] is a composite of many roles and needs to be blessed with certain personality attributes in order to play them with effect." Inlow p. 140

10. (30) Which of the following statements would best describe your attitude toward a teacher who relied heavily on a textbook in teaching?

1 He was probably trying to save time
2 His knowledge of the subject was limited
3 He was probably an inexperienced teacher
4 He was probably a poor teacher

A significant feature of the text is that it does save time, which is of particular advantage for the inexperienced teacher. Inlow p. 159

11. (31) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "The type of audio-visual aid to be used will depend on the learning ability of the class"?

1 Agree 2 Disagree

Audio-visual aids are of particular advantage for the slow learner. Inlow p. 192

12. (32) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "Current events may be used with equal importance in the class work of both rapid and slow learners"?

1 Agree 2 Disagree

Current events may be used as an important part of the classwork of both rapid and slow learners. Inlow p. 227

13. (33) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "Both rapid and slow learners may be expected to be honest and accurate in reporting science experiments"?

1 Agree 2 Disagree

Both rapid and slow learners may be expected to be honest in reporting science experiments. Inlow p. 227

14. (34) What is your attitude toward the following statement: "A school grade of any kind in secondary school is only a rough estimate of performance"?

2 Agree; therefore the teacher may use whatever standards which may be appropriate to arrive at an evaluation.

1 Agree; nevertheless the teacher should make it as accurate as possible.
3 Disagree; it is a valid evaluation of performance.
4 Disagree; it is an accurate evaluation of performance.

While a grade is only a rough estimate of performance, nevertheless, attempts should be made to make it as accurate as possible. Inlow p. 335

15. (35) Which of the following statements best reflects your attitude concerning the general use of homework assignments in secondary school?

2 Most teachers use daily assignments, which are most beneficial
3 Most teachers use long-range assignments, which are most beneficial
1 Most teachers use daily assignments, though long-range forms are most beneficial
4 Most teachers use long-range assignments, though daily forms are most beneficial

Most teachers use daily assignments, though long-range assignments are more beneficial. Inlow p. 162

Teacher Effectiveness - Skill Scale

1. (13) Would you agree or disagree with the statement: "The proper function of the teacher is to 'put something into the child' rather than to 'get something out of him'"?

2 Agree 1 Disagree

The more appropriate teaching skills use indirect methods to develop an interest in the child, thus involving him more in his learning. Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt pp. 6-7

2. (14) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "It is sometimes desirable to allow a class to do as it wishes, even if it conflicts with previously made plans"?

1 Agree 2 Disagree

This statement is positively correlated with attitudes of secondary teachers who scored highly on favorable characteristics. Ryans p. 215

3. (16) How would you evaluate the following relationships between teaching methods and skills in developing effective teaching?

    2 Methods of teaching are more important than teaching skills.
    1 Teaching skills are more important than methods of teaching.
    3 Neither are important.

While methods stress the importance of developing student interest, techniques or skills are concerned with putting a method to be used in developing student interest into effect. Lieberman p. 202

4. (18) Which of the following characteristics do you consider to be most representative of a "poor" class?

    2 Disorderliness and noise
    1 Hesitant and listless students

Disorderliness and noise as indicators of a poor class are negatively correlated with attitudes of secondary teachers who scored highly on favorable characteristics. Ryans p. 223

5. (19) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "How much teachers talk and what they say determine to a large extent the reactions of the students"?

    1 Agree   2 Disagree

The assumption here is that such control manifested by the teacher provides a direct approach to teaching which is not always desirable. Recognition of this possibility provides the potential for flexibility in approach which is a desirable teacher characteristic. Flanders p. 112

6. (22) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "It may be necessary for a new teacher to ask the class whether they would prefer to go out or stay inside for gym"?

    1 Agree   2 Disagree

This is an indirect control pattern which it is necessary to employ under some circumstances. Flanders p. 14

7. (23) Would you agree or disagree with the statement: "It is proper to perceive of the role of the teacher as comparable to that of a football coach"?

1 Agree 2 Disagree

The leadership role of a teacher, allowing for flexibility, is to be stressed in classroom teaching. Jenkins pp. 175-176

8. (24) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "Mathematics requires a different teacher approach to the class, as compared with social studies, because of the nature of the subject"?

2 Agree 1 Disagree

An indirect approach may be used as readily in mathematics as in social science. Flanders p. 114

9. (36) What is your attitude toward the following statement: "There are two kinds of mistakes; the intuitive mistake which is wrong but creative and the ignorant mistake, which is wrong and shows lack of understanding"?

1 Agree; it is difficult for the teacher to discern the difference.
2 Agree; it is not difficult for the teacher to discern the difference.
3 Disagree; no error is completely wrong.
4 Disagree; all errors reflect lack of understanding.

There are different kinds of errors, but only the most sensitive teacher will be able to discern the difference. Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt p. 11

10. (37) Which of the following policies is best for a teacher to use during a year's period of work?

2 The year should begin with the teacher giving much direction and criticism, gradually allowing the students to offer suggestions with greater independence.
1 The year should begin with the students offering suggestions with greater independence, with the teacher gradually giving more direction and criticism.
4 The teacher should maintain the giving of direction and criticism throughout the year.
3 The students should maintain independence while offering suggestions throughout the year.

The first two responses are both reflective of the more preferable indirect approach to education, though the more indirect classroom teacher will tend to have a decrease in indirect influence and an increase of direct influence. Flanders p. 105

11. (38) Would you agree or disagree with the following statement: "If the class is not working well at a class assignment, the teacher should decide what is wrong, provide directions, and if necessary, criticize the class"?

2 Agree 1 Disagree

The statement reflects a direct approach in which the teacher may be relying on an inaccurate perception of the situation. Hesitancy in making such a decision would provide an indirect approach and would allow the teacher to gain a possible new perception from the class. Flanders p. 114

12. (39) If the student states that he doesn't understand what should be done, the teacher should

3 Explain the instructions after telling the student he should be more attentive.
2 Explain the instructions assuming the cause of the student's confusion.
1 Explain the instructions after asking the student why he doesn't understand.

Allowing the student to explain why he doesn't understand before giving him explicit directions reflects the use of a preferable indirect approach on the part of the teacher. Flanders p. 116

13. (40) If the student states that he understands what should be done, but doesn't know how to do it, the teacher should

3 Explain the instructions after telling the student he should be more attentive.
1 Explain the instructions assuming the cause of the student's confusion.
2 Explain the instructions after asking the student why he doesn't understand.

Explaining the instructions while assuming the cause of the student's confusion is a direct approach which increases learning when goal is clear but means aren't. Flanders pp. 16 and 109

14. (41) How would you rate the following statement by a teacher: "I'm not certain about that"?

1 Desirable 2 Not desirable

This is a comment generally made by teachers characterized as having "good" characteristics of teaching skill. Barr p. 44

15. (42) How would you rate the following statement by a teacher: "But you didn't answer my question"?

2 Desirable 1 Not desirable

This is a comment generally made by teachers characterized as having "poor" characteristics of teaching skill. Barr p. 41

Face Sheet Data

1. (61) What is your sex? _ Male _ Female

2. (62) How old were you on your last birthday?

_ 20 or under
_ 21 - 23
_ 24 - 26
_ 27 - 29
_ 30 - 32
_ 33 - 35
_ 36 or over

3. (63) What is your approximate grade point average?

_ A -
_ B +
_ B
_ B -
_ C +
_ C
_ C -
_ D +
_ D

4. (64) Are you, or have you ever been, married?

_ Yes _ No

5. (65) Are you now engaged to be married?

_ Yes _ No

6. (66) What is your religion?

_ Protestant
_ Roman Catholic
_ Jewish
_ Other (____________________)

7. (67) What is the usual frequency with which you attend church or church activities?

_ Less than once a month
_ Between once a month and once a week
_ Once a week
_ More than once a week

8. (68) On which level of school do you expect to teach?

_ Elementary
_ Secondary
_ College

9. (70) In general, how would you rate the teachers you have had on each one of the three areas indicated below?

Influence

_ Many had significant influence on me
_ Some had significant influence on me
_ A few had significant influence on me
_ None had significant influence on me

Likeability

_ I considered many to be very likeable
_ I considered some to be very likeable
_ I considered a few to be very likeable
_ I considered none to be very likeable

Capability

_ Many were very capable teachers
_ Some were very capable teachers
_ A few were very capable teachers
_ None were very capable teachers

10. (71) What was the approximate size of the community in which you lived when you went to high school?

_ Under 500
_ 500 - 10,000
_ 10,000 - 50,000
_ 50,000 - 100,000
_ 100,000 - 500,000
_ Over 500,000

11. (72) What was the approximate size of your high school graduating class?

_ Under 50
_ 50 - 100
_ 100 - 250
_ 250 - 500
_ Over 500

12. (73) What is the occupation of your father? If deceased, what was his last position? Please list the specific job title, for example: (Doctor, insurance salesman, minister, shoe salesman, steelworker, high school teacher, etc.)

____

13. (74) For the purposes of our survey, we need to have a rough indication of your family income. Would you mind indicating the area into which the total income (be it from salaries, commissions, etc.) falls?

_ $0 - 3,999
_ $4,000 - 7,999
_ $8,000 - 11,999
_ $12,000 - 15,999
_ $16,000 - 24,999
_ Over $25,000

14. (75) Also we need an indication of the amount of education your father received.

_ Less than the 7th grade
_ 7th through the 9th grade
_ Partial high school
_ High school graduate
_ Partial college (at least one full year)
_ College or university graduate
_ Graduate or professional training
_ Other (please explain______________________________)

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